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Maureen Ann. Culleton-Felker
University of Windsor

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THE MARITAL SATISFACTION OF CORPORATE WIVES

by

Maureen Ann Culleton-Felker

A Thesis
submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the School of Social Work
in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the Degree
of Master of Social Work at
The University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

1986

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RESEARCH COMMITTEE

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To Joanne

A ministering angel shall my sister be

-William Shakespeare

ABSTRACT

THE MARITAL SATISFACTION OF CORPORATE WIVES

by

MAUREEN ANN CULLETON-FELKER

The objective of this study was to explore the differences between the marital and personal satisfaction of corporate wives, and wives in the general population. This study, classified as quantitative-descriptive, investigated the relationships between the number of the executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, with the marital and personal satisfaction, of his wife.

* Data from thirty-seven interview-schedules was compiled from a sample of 20 corporate wives, and 17 wives from the general population, all of whom were interviewed by the researcher. The interview-schedule comprised of demographic information, a scale deliniating marital and personal satisfaction, and 12 open-ended questions relating to the wife's perceived sources of dissatisfaction, stress, and depression.

The research results indicated that corporate wives experience

marital dissatisfaction, particularly in relation to the number of their husband's work hours, and the frequency of transfers, but are personally satisfied with their careers, their social relationships, and personal growth. No statistically significant difference was found, between corporate wives and wives in the general population, regarding their marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career selection.

The conclusions from the research findings are that corporate wives seem to have difficulty satisfying "belongingness" needs (Minuchin, 1974), within their marriages, and have focused on their "separateness" (Minuchin), or personal satisfaction, to sustain their marriages. Minuchin (1974) warns that a skewed balance of individuation may produce disengagement between spouses. In this study, the respondents who experienced greater personal satisfaction were also those who experienced greater marital dissatisfaction.

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I wish to thank the women who volunteered their time as participants in this study.

Much gratitude is extended to the staff at Metropolitan Detroit Magazine for the use of their equipment, their tremendous support, and their tolerance of my daily presence at their offices. Special thanks is extended to Kirk Cheyfitz for his editorial contributions, his insight, and particularly, for his comfort during times of extreme stress. Ruth Pollack-Coughlin also contributed editorial suggestions which provided clarity of

content.

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I am deeply indebted to my mother Florence Culleton, and my sister Joanne Mauder to whom this thesis is dedicated, for their continuous availability in the care of my child, when I was unavailable to care for her.

Most of all, I wish to thank my husband Jack, and my precious and spirited daughter, Sarah. Without their love, cooperation, and understanding, this endeavor could not have reached fruition.

Camus once said, "Every achievement is an enslavement". This one robbed me of several hours of sleep, and several hundred hours away from my family. It granted me wisdom, confidence, and many dear friends.

Maureen Ann Culleton-Felker

Windsor, Ontario

December, 1985

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

This study originated as an analysis of the marriages of "blue-collar" line workers in the automotive industry, but changed direction as the researcher developed interest in the marriages of corporate executives, with a particular interest in corporate wives.

Initially, the researcher's interest in line workers arose from an internship at Windsor Western Hospital Centre, during 1980. Several social work administrators, at the hospital, speculated that line workers experience discontent on the job, which breeds marital problems at home. Bell (1962) and Herzberg (1966) describe the dehumanizing effects of the line worker's isolation from the development of his product and the alienation from loss of importance to either the product or his company. Moreover, the line worker experiences little satisfaction from job-mastery because the simplicity of his job requires only minimal trial-and-error attempts to achieve perfection. Bell (1962) concludes that the line worker is the most debased of all job-holders because his only reward is a weekly paycheck. A cycle of self-alienation infiltrates first, his entire character, and then his marriage which serves only to distort his view of reality.

Marital friction and loss of expectation of self are accepted as easily as generationally indigent families accept poverty (Bell, 1962).

There is another group of job-holders, however, that are victims of their work conditions as well. This group, the executives who manage the affairs of corporations, instead of experiencing the line worker's diminishing expectations of self, suffer the burden of rising expectations. Yet, "while this group is the most fussed-over segment of society...they are the most manipulated and exploited steady job-holders in the land" (Packard, 1962, p. 18). The corporate executive is expected to ascend in the corporate hierarchy, and this ascension is primarily attained through the executive's loyalty to the company. He is enticed by the corporation into pursuing the "climb to the top" with the intensity of a starving man in his quest for a morsel of food. The "payoff" for corporate loyalty is capsulated in luxurious incentives of five and six-figure incomes. Other trappings include company cars, executive dining rooms, country club memberships, generous expense accounts, use of company planes and lodges, rewards of title, and beautiful houses in homogeneous suburbs (Packard, 1962, p. 21).

Corporate loyalty requires that executives work long hours, travel frequently for purposes of business, and transfer to other company markets. The many demands on the executive often means that he may spend minimal time at home. The executive may be

required to sacrifice, to the corporation, his early morning and evening hours, weekends, and mealtime that he might otherwise, spend with his family. The executive may be required to relocate his family as often as several times per year to increase his promotability within the company. The company often occupies the primary position in the executive's life, and his family and social life become secondary. The effects on the relationships between corporate executives and their wives can be destructive, and the process of this destruction can be cancerous, subtle, and slow. Whyte (1956) explains that "executives try to be dutiful husbands and parents, and ...are well aware that their absorption in work means less time with their family even when they are physically with them" (Whyte, 1956, p. 148). Whyte (1956) also explains that the executive is often "so completely involved in his work that he cannot distinguish between work and the rest of his life, and is happy that he cannot" (p. 150). Whyte calls this "affliction" the "executive neurosis". This "neurosis" disrupts family life because the executive's addiction to work manifests his need to "deny isolation, avoid intimacy, gain acceptance, and reduce anxiety" (Hatterer, 1980, p. 28).

The executive may rationalize his loyalty to the company by believing that it is for the "betterment of his family" that he strive to fulfill his expectation of success. At least, this is the apparent motivation, and a palpable one for his family to rationalize, while denying their loneliness. Yet, while the

executive struggles to ascend the corporate ladder, enjoying his rewards of achievement at each rung, what happens to his wife? How is she coping with her husband's frequent absence, and too many moves?

The literature abounds with the cries of discontented wives of executives in articles such as "I Hate My Husband's Success" (Lake, 1968), "Moving and Depression in Women" (Weissman & Paykel, 1972), "Corporate Wives: The Third Party" (Berkwith, 1972), "Till Business Do Us Part" (Walker, 1976), "Corporate Wives-Victims of Benign Neglect" (Thompson, 1977), and "Corporate Wife-Loneliest Job in Town" (Anonymous, 1974).

Who, if anyone, is to blame for the malaise of these unwitting corporate appendages? Is it the husband, or more acutely, his loyalty to the corporation, that is the culprit?

Perhaps to accuse the executive of being responsible for his wife's unhappiness is a false shift in liability. At first glance, it appears that the abundance of ominously entitled literature lends evidence to support the notion that wives are indeed "corporate casualties" (Seidenberg, 1973), although the "casualty rate" (Kanter, 1977, p. 109) among corporate wives is, in actuality, unknown. In her book, Men and Women of the Corporation, Kanter (1977) addresses the difficulties of being married to successful men, both in corporate and political life. Kanter (1977) points out that marriage to successful men is "constraining", shapes "role demands for wives", and often "puts

the family last in the man's priorities" (Kanter, 1977, p. 110).

In order to lessen the "casualty" or "wife-as-victim" syndrome (Kanter, 1977, p. 109), Henry (1967), suggests that the best a wife can do is adopt her husband's corporate goals as her own. Henry (1967) explains that

Corporate men (are) not family men. Wives must actively subordinate themselves to the husband's work aims or, at the very least, not interfere with them. The key to an effective partnership...would in fact be the degree to which the wife actively adopted the corporate goals and skillfully aided the husband in that direction (Kanter, 1977, p. 311).

Henry's (1967) statement implies that the wife's subordination to corporate role dictates is important, if not essential, to both family harmony, and corporate recognition and advancement. Yet there are corporate couples who do not adopt corporate rules of behavior, and their goals include family time together, shared child care responsibilities, and mutual support for each partner's careers. If, as Henry (1967) states, a wife must "actively subordinate herself to the husband's work aims", her own advancement and self-esteem may be thwarted. Freidman (1983) cites the danger of focusing primarily on the marital relationship to fulfill social, creative, and esteem needs. Freidman says that "when a man takes an overly significant role in your life, you lose your true self in trying to please him. Make a man the focus of your attention, and you'll always be angry that he isn't doing the

same for you" (Freidman, 1983, p.14). Instead of adopting corporate goals as her only option, the corporate wife can adopt career, educational, or community goals as an alternative option. In this way, she limits her vulnerability to victimization by corporate rule dictates, although, she may not improve her marital relationship by focusing on personal, rather than on corporate, goals.

In Corporate Wives-Corporate Casualties, Seidenberg (1973), disclaims a "villian" theory of responsibility for marital unrest in the corporate world. Instead of blaming "our corporate goliaths" or the executives, or even the wives, he focuses on two invariable traps that tend to promote a shattering of the corporate union, while victimizing the wife. One is the problem of transfers which thwart an opportunity for advancing the wife's career and force her, continually, to seek new friends in new neighborhoods. Her identity and social authority require re-establishment with each new move. Her children also are frustrated by this nomadic life, and often express their frustrations with drug use, withdrawal, depression, and acts of delinquency (Seidenberg, 1973, p.vii). The other "trap" is loneliness. Seidenberg (1973) thoroughly describes the impact of loneliness on the human condition. He says that loneliness is

...the word to cover myriad unexpressed and unexpressible feelings of frustration, disappointment, and disillusionment. It really means not only being left alone

by husbands and fathers but left behind, excluded from those interests and challenges needed by all beings of intelligence. It means being torn from friends, confidants and constituents. To be separated from people and activities that make one feel worthy makes one feel both lonely and empty. There is nothing pathological or clinical about this --every poet, or other sensitive person, knows all about this feeling. (pps. vii-viii)

The corporate wife has not only been left alone and left behind, she has been left out of the triad of success between her husband and the corporation.

While her husband's success has been measured by promotions, the acquisition of power, and increasing financial status, the corporate wife's "success" has largely been measured by her ability to motivate her husband and act as his helpmate. She has been discouraged from experiencing a career (Whyte, 1951; Margolis, 1976; Vandervelde, 1979), and more than a few "vices" of fulfillment outside the home (Seidenberg, 1973). Because of her husband's demands of work, and transfers to other company markets, the corporate wife has been expected to survive loneliness (Seidenberg, 1973), almost exclusive child-rearing responsibilities (Feldberg & Kohen, 1976), social reorganization (Margolis, 1976), and her own career fragmentation (Vandervelde, 1979). She has been uprooted from her home and taken from her family and friends, not once, but as often as demanded by her husband's company. The goals

of this study have other implications for the executive wife than merely the identification of the "villians" in corporate life. A review of the literature in Chapter Two will first explore the origins of literary interest in the corporate wife, the emergence of a stereotype of expected "corporate wife" behavior (Whyte, 1951), her role definition, and her career development.

A literary review of the corporate wife will begin with a history of incorporated organizations that explains how and why the corporate executive became an integral part of corporations, and the origins of literary interest in his life, both at work and at home. Chapter Two continues with a detailed exploration of the role of the corporate wife, and her triadic relationship between her executive-husband and the corporation. Following this section, the role of the executive, within the corporation, is investigated. The executive's loyalty to his company, as well as his work hours, travel, and transfers, are examined to show their effects on the marital relationship between the corporate wife and her husband, and on her career development. Chapter Two concludes with the effects of the vicissitudes of corporate life on the corporate wife and her family.

Goals

The goals of this study are, first, to determine whether the wives of corporate executives are positively or negatively affected by the corporate lifestyle; second, to clarify, through research

and its correlates, the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the corporate lifestyle among the wives of corporate executives; and third, to investigate whether wives' various roles have been shaped by corporate life.

Definitions

"Corporate lifestyle" refers to the contingencies of corporate life as corporate transfers, corporate travel, long work hours, and social/entertainment requirements. "Corporate wife" refers to a woman between 21 and 60 years of age who is married to a middle to upper management executive or corporate officer. "Corporate executive" refers to the men who are the husbands of the wives.

Social Work Relevance

Examining the marital satisfaction of corporate wives was a delicate and challenging task. The corporate wife has been perceived as interpersonally inadequate and "sick" when she has had difficulty adjusting to interfering and sometimes destructive contingencies of her husband's corporate employment lifestyle. Typically, corporate wives seeking psychological help have been treated as the spouse responsible for marital deterioration. Corporate wives have been perceived by mental health practitioners as being dependent, resourceless individuals who cannot cope with the expectations thrust upon them by their husbands and the corporation. The corporate wife's complaints about her

subservience to the corporate lifestyle have been dealt with as cries of her own inadequacy as a wife, homemaker, and mother. Instead of examining the role of the corporate wife in her triadic relationship between her executive-husband and the corporation, she has been blamed for her own marital disruption or personal dissatisfaction (Dr. Vigo Jensen, Interview, May, 1980, Grosse Pointe, Michigan).

In this research, the corporate wife is being studied from a systems framework. Her symptomology may derive from the demands on her from the corporate lifestyle, instead of from interpersonal dysfunction. If her level of functioning occupies a minimal percentage of the marital equilibrium, it may be due to unusual pressures from her husband's corporate lifestyle, rather than from her own inadequacies.

This study is relevant to social work practice, in that, social work practitioners, may see corporate wives as clients (Olds, 1980; Jensen, 1980; Parker, 1981). This study aspires to discover whatever burdens, stresses, pressures, loneliness, role conflicts, and satisfactions or dissatisfactions accompany, or may derive, from corporate life. If we assume, in ignorance, that the problems that these women encounter derive from individual psychopathology, without awareness that they may be family problems of systems imbalance, we may not be able to counsel them effectively.

It is not possible to generalize the problems of the corporate

family by studying the wife, in isolation of other members in the family unit. Yet, wives of corporate executives have been chosen for this research to gain knowledge of the problems of this, perhaps, isolated subgroup of society, because it appears that the misconceptions about corporate wives are great, and the research is minimal. This study aspires to provide information for the social work profession which might aid in the diagnosis and treatment of the special problems of the corporate wife, as a member of the corporate family.

Theoretical Framework

Minuchin (1974) theorized that people are socialized and survive, not as individuals, but in groups. The most familiar arrangement of group formation is the subgroup of the family from which the first transformations of personal identity occur. Each family member's "sense of identity is influenced by his sense of belonging to a specific family" (p.47). Identity formation continues, as the individual belongs to different social groups, but the family is the matrix of human psychosocial development (Minuchin, 1974, p. 51).

Minuchin's (1974) "family model" has been employed to explain how the corporate wife may have difficulty adjusting to her husband's corporate lifestyle. The corporate wife who has difficulty adjusting to her husband's loyalty to long work hours, travel, and transfers, has been perceived as being inadequate

(Seidenberg, 1973). She is expected to cope with loneliness (Seidenberg, 1973; Thompson, 1977; Boss, McCubbin, & Lester, 1979), and sole child-rearing responsibilities (Seidenberg, 1973), when her husband is either away at work for eleven or twelve hours a day (Margolis, 1976), or when he travels for his company. She has been perceived as being dysfunctional when she has had difficulty adjusting to transfers that have pulled her away from friends and family (Seidenberg, 1973; Tiger, 1974), and disrupted her educational or career pursuits (Margolis, 1976; Vandervelde, 1979). Minuchin's (1974) theory explains that, when the corporate wife cannot make an appropriate transition to a life event, such as a transfer, her difficulty in adjusting is "normal" (Minuchin, 1974, p. 60), since transfers are transitional events in her family's life .

Minuchin's "family model" analyzes the family as a social system in transformation, that "undergoes development, moving through a number of stages that require restructuring", rather than one in which normal transitional stages are perceived as pathogenic (Minuchin, 1974, p. 51). If the family is a social system in transformation, and a transfer is included as one of those stages, then the wife's reaction to the transfer, or her ability to accomodate the stresses from the corporate lifestyle, are part of the "restructuring", and hence, "normal". Minuchin explains that "the prevailing idealized view of the normal family is that it is non-stressful....A normal family cannot be distinguished from an

abnormal family by the absence of problems" (Minuchin, 1974, pps. 50-51). Pathology occurs when family members who encounter stress, become more rigid in their behavior, rather than more adaptable, or avoid exploring alternatives to behavior that are not able to mitigate the stress (Minuchin, 1974, p. 60). Just because the corporate wife experiences difficulty adjusting to her husband's long work hours, travel, or transfers, she is not interpersonally dysfunctional, but rather, reacting to stresses from an imbalance in her family system.

The imbalance occurs because the wife may be stressed by isolation from her husband, due to his minimal time spent at home. The isolation of one person from another, in a marital relationship, potentially thwarts intimacy between the couple (Feldberg & Kohen, 1976). "Adults must have a psychosocial territory...in which they can give each other emotional support....(The) husband and wife need each other as a refuge from the multiple demands of life" (Minuchin, 1974, p. 57).

The corporate wife may also be stressed by sole child-care responsibilities, again, because of her husband's limited time at home. The wife may over-function at home to compensate for her husband who under-functions. She may also stop functioning adequately because she is overloaded with the stress that over-functioning may produce. Systems disequilibrium in the family is often the result when one member experiences stress from over-functioning to compensate for the other member's

under-functioning (Boss, McCubbin, & Lester, 1974). "When situations of systems disequilibrium arise, it is common for family members to feel that other members are not fulfilling their obligations" (Minuchin, 1974, p. 52). The adjustment reactions of the corporate wife to her husband's loyalty to corporate demands are, according to Minuchin's (1974) theory, quite appropriate. She may be neither dysfunctional, nor experiencing psychopathology. Minuchin's model treats the dysfunctional individual in the family as one who experiences stress due to the family system's imbalance, rather than as one experiencing interpersonal psychopathology (Minuchin, 1974, p. 51).

However, families must adapt to stress. Family adaptation can occur only when the family reacts, or responds, to the stresses that threaten their functioning. The corporate family's ability to survive internal change, such as a transfer, or interference from the external culture, such as the corporate demands on the executive-husband's time, depends upon their flexibility to mobilize adaptive resources.

Minuchin capsulates the experience of identity into two elements: belongingness and separateness. In family structure, belongingness refers to family attachments and separateness refers to individual differentiation, and the ability to accommodate to the external culture. Husbands and wives potentially achieve belongingness identity through their identification with each other as an interdependent couple. The literature indicates that the

corporate wife attempts to enhance interdependency with her husband, but finds this to be a difficult task since her husband's time is essentially occupied with work (Feldberg & Kohen, 1976). Satisfaction of her separateness needs may also be thwarted by transfers (Vandervelde, 1979), and by the corporation's expectations that the corporate wife adhere to a stereotype of behavior which encourages her to aid her husband in his career, and live vicariously through his work achievements (Seidenberg, 1973).

Summary.

Minuchin's (1974) family model underscores the individual's experience in the family, the individual's identity formation of "belongingness" and "separateness" that is developed within the family, and the functions of the family to protect the psychosocial health of its members, and to accommodate to the external culture. The family is analyzed as a social system in transformation rather than one in which normal transitional stages are perceived as pathogenic. The dysfunctional individual is perceived as one who experiences stress due to family system's imbalance, rather than from interpersonal psychopathology.

In the corporate family, the executive-husband and his wife potentially satisfy belongingness needs, through each other. While the executive-husband may self-differentiate through his work, his wife may have greater difficulty developing separateness due to

career fragmentation from transfers, and a stereotype of behavior that discourages her from focusing on a career of her own.

The executive-husband's loyalty requirements may thwart intimacy between the corporate couple, and may interfere with the family's ability to adapt to their isolation, from the executive-husband. Systems disequilibrium may arise if one family member, often the wife, can no longer adapt appropriately to corporate loyalty demands on her husband's time. The wife may appear dysfunctional as she attempts to adapt to stresses from the corporate lifestyle, but she may only be experiencing systems imbalance in her family, which reflects a need for the family to restructure its previous patterns of adaptation that are no longer functional.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

Corporate Lifestyle

Introduction

The earliest corporations were born in 1555 (Muscovy Company) and 1602 (Dutch East India Company) when, during the overseas trade expansion of the 16th and 17th centuries, associates bought shares in a ship, or its cargo and divided the profits while assuming the risks. These were the first forms of trade which resulted in permanent capital for its investors. The industrial revolution (circa 1840) gave rise to hundreds of corporations that were created to finance larger economic developments such as railroads and factories. Modern corporations of business function primarily for profit, but there are also charitable, cooperative, municipal and religious corporations. "The salient characteristic of the modern corporation is the separation of management from ownership" (Harris, 1975). Additionally, the corporation has a manifest legal image consisting of "an association of persons into an autonomous legal unit, with a distinct legal personality, that enables it to carry on business, own property, and contract debts" (Galbraith, 1967, p. 73).

Prior to the ascension of profit making corporations, business enterprise in the United States was largely the result of family associations. The family provided both the initial finances and the skills and labor required to operate the small business. The domination of family owned industries afforded social recognition, prestige and territorial property privileges in the towns where these families lived (Bell, 1962, pps. 42-43).

Family capitalism began to break down at the turn of the century when family industries merged with the bankers who controlled the financial markets. These bankers or investors hired professional managers to oversee operations, in the once family-owned enterprises. Because these managers were only employees, with no proprietary privileges, they could not hand-down their positions of power to their sons. These new managers were often engineers, whose chief duty was the development of vast economic growth. They were rewarded, not only financially, but with status, power, and the acquisition of high social positions. Many future managers aspired to "ivy league" educations, that ensured capital security and social mobility, as a member of these institutions, which were the prototype for the modern corporation (Bell, 1962, pps. 43-44).

Since the growth and development of profit-making institutions, millions of people, who have aspired to the "American Dream", have found financial security and the quest for personal omnipotence in the American Corporation. Packard (1962)

explains that

Corporations are becoming more and more important in the lives of most of us....Increasingly we live in a corporate society. Business executives are seen as the foremost social models, if not our leading heroes. They enjoy the greatest material rewards we can offer, and some of the greatest rewards of prestige. (p. 14)

Literary interest in corporations, and the executives within these organizations, became particularly prevalent after World War II when the national economy greatly improved, and the incorporation of businesses increased.

During the 1950's and 1960's, a plethora of articles and studies emerged that focused on the executive and his corporate style of life, both in business and at home. Publications such as The Executive Life (Editors of Fortune, 1956), Men at the Top (Elliot, 1959), What Makes an Executive? (Gineberg, 1959), "The Executive Personality" (Rosen, 1959, Personnel), Men Who Manage (Dalton, 1959), The New Managers: Patterns of Behavior and Development (Dill, 1962), and "Some Characteristics of Successful Executives" (Arguris, 1953, Personnel), were just a few of the books and articles that evolved from heightened awareness in the business community of the executive at work. These publications exalted the executive lifestyle, while Whyte's Organization Man (1956), Merton's Social Theory and Social Structure (1961), Barnett's "The High Cost of Success" (1968, Science Digest),

Galbraith's The Affluent Society (1969), Levinson's Executive Stress (1970), DeMare's "A Grim Collection of a Corporate Career" (1976, Corporate Lives), Packard's The Status Seekers (1959) and The Pyramid Climbers (1962), and others like it were more critical and less optimistic of the executive's climb to the top. Whyte and Packard, in particular, focused on the changes in the lifestyles of transient executives, since the trend in the mid 1900's, toward corporate growth required transferring managers across the country to affiliate companies (Winstanley, 1984, p. 2). Packard (1962) also comprehensively described the effects of the "climb to the top" on the family of the executive, particularly his wife.

Literary interest in the "corporate wife" began when Whyte (1951) first wrote about the wives of executives in three separate articles which appeared in Fortune magazine entitled "The Wives of Management" (October, 1951), "The Corporation and the Wife" (November, 1951), and "In Praise of the Ornery Wife" (November, 1951). These writings described a "blueprint" of cooperative and acquiescing behavior, designated by the corporation, that corporate wives were expected to follow, for the enhancement of their husband's career. Helfrich was the next to write about the corporate wife in "The Generalized Role of the Corporate Wife" (1967, Marriage and Family Living), and in "The Executive Wife-A Factor in Promotion" (1972, Business Horizons). These articles continued to describe the impingements of the corporate lifestyle on the life of the corporate wife, and to focus on her

behavior and role expectations. Lake's (1968, McCalls) soliloquy "I Hate My Husband's Success", Berkwitt's (1972, Dun's Review) article "Corporate Wives-The Third Party", and Thompson's (1977, Industry Week) article "Corporate Wives-Victims of Benign Neglect" criticized the corporation's role in monopolizing the time of the executive, while excluding his wife. The most powerful critical analysis of the corporate wife's role as helpmate to her husband's career, to the exclusion of her own, appeared first, in Seidenberg's article "Dear Mr. Success-Consider Your Wife" (1972, Annual Readings in Sociology), and later, in his book, Corporate Wives-Corporate Casualties? (1973). Seidenberg's works virtually attacked Whyte's (1951) behavioral regulations for corporate wives which include that wives realize their husbands belong to the corporation, and that they not complain when they are transferred, or when their husbands come home late from work. Seidenberg (1973) also addressed the "trauma" of transfers in his chapter "Do Corporate Wives Have Souls?", and, in the "Anatomy of Loneliness", referred to her solitary plight as the "principal disease" of the corporate wife (p. 95). In How to Survive as a Corporate Wife, Upson (1974) deflected some of Seidenberg's purported malaise of the corporate wife with an advisory format, and an optimistic style. Upson provided a variety of ways in which the corporate wife can cope with existing stereotypic expectations thrust upon her, by the corporation. Vandervelde (1979) was next to analyze the role definition and evolving stereotype of the corporate wife


in The Changing Life of the Corporate Wife.

The next section, of this research, is devoted to providing a detailed description of the stereotype of the corporate wife, her role definition and career development, and the changes in the stereotype of her role as corporate wife.

The Corporate Wife

Introduction.

In order to understand the process of how complicated it may be for the corporate wife to change her role as full-time helpmate to her husband's career, one must first understand the chronology of the stereotype of the corporate wife. In the literature, this stereotype was perceived as being functional during the 1950's, and 1960's, when the executive-wife's "career" included entertaining her husband's clients, providing him with a clean and peaceful home, and raising their children (Whyte, 1951; Helfrich, 1967). The first speculation that the corporate wife's role was dysfunctional occurred in 1958, when Lake (1958) revealed that the corporate wife's appearance, and public behavior, were scrutinized by the corporation, as well as her "career" assignments in the home. A number of articles in the 1970's emerged, supporting the notion that the corporate wife stereotype was indeed, dysfunctional (Berkwitz, 1972; Seidenberg, 1972; Thompson, 1977; Coumbe, 1978). These articles challenged the real necessity of the corporate wife to abdicate a career of her own to aid her husband's, and



criticized corporate expectations that the executive-wife adhere to a code of behavior and dress, that would increase her husband's promotability in the corporation.

Functional vs. Dysfunctional Stereotype of the Corporate Wife.

In the first of a series of Fortune articles, Whyte (1951) investigated the wives of junior-middle management executives between the ages of twenty-five and forty with high aspirations of career ascendance within corporations. Whyte described the executive wife as "highly adaptable, highly gregarious, (and) realizes her husband belongs to the corporation" (Whyte, October, 1951, p. 86). In another Fortune article, Whyte differentiated between the "ideal" and the "ornery" wife (Whyte, November, 1951). The "ideal" type, according to Whyte, is nurturing, stabilizing, non-complaining, anti-feminist, non-controversial, and completely sacrificial of her husband to the corporation. She is generally a woman who is not employed outside the home, entertains company personnel, and not only has moved more than once because of a company transfer, but seems to enjoy it. The corporate wife is attractive, does not gossip, rarely visits the office, strictly monitors her alcohol intake, and maintains a low intellectual profile (Whyte, October, 1951, pps. 87-89). Whyte calls these specifications of the "ideal" wife "the rules of the game" which became a format for a stereotype of corporate wife behavior (Whyte, October, 1951, p. 88).

The executive wife is also expected to maintain a serene, uncomplicated home life that will not interfere with her husband's commitment to the corporation. As one executive in Whyte's study states:

We control a man's environment in business and...lose it entirely when he crosses the threshold of his home.

Management...has a challenge and an obligation to deliberately plan and create a favorable constructive attitude on the part of the wife that will liberate her

husband's total energies for the job. (October, 1951, p. 86)

Whyte concludes that, although the wife likes the corporate lifestyle, the corporation does not always like her. As much as the corporation would like to own the man, it recognizes that his wife is in a triangular relationship between the corporation and her executive-husband (Whyte, November, 1951, p. 111). "As some members of the business community accepted the notion of the 'corporate wife', they also accepted the idea that wives could adversely affect their husband's job performance and ultimately the company" (Winstanly, 1984, p. 18). To assure the wife's support of her husband's ascendance, the corporation integrates the wife socially (Whyte, November, 1951, p. 111). "The corporation welcomes her largely as a means of defending itself against her....We've got an equity in the man...and it's only prudence to protect it by bringing the wife into the picture" (Whyte, November, 1951, p. 111). She is not only invited to company functions and

her husband's country club outings, but is expected to attend. The corporation convinces her that she will reap social ascendance and financial comfort and security for her cooperation (Whyte, November, 1951, pps. 111-112).

Whyte (1951) illustrated the corporate wife as content, and even enthusiastic, about her lifestyle. Five years later, when he wrote The Organization Man, Whyte (1956) altered his impression of the image of the executive wife from a functional one, to one of dysfunction. Whyte (1956) addressed the problem of loneliness that these women experience due to their husband's absorption in work.

Following Whyte's articles, Newsweek printed two articles entitled "Blueprint For A Wife" (1954), and "Sizing Up Executive Wives" (1957), that discuss and evaluate the stereotype of the corporate wife. Helfrich (1967) was the next to investigate the suitability of wives of executives. In her study of one-hundred executive-wives, she answers the question of why there is literary interest in this group and states that

business transactions are no longer confined to the office.

Today much socializing and entertaining among the business elite aids in accomplishing corporate objectives. The wife of the executive has become a part of all this. She is expected to entertain at dinners, at cocktail parties and to open her home to weekend guests. Furthermore, executives, their wives and families have become increasingly mobile. The corporation may want to know if the wife is adaptable

and adjustable, not offering too much resistance to family moving, traveling, and the long working hours of her husbandThe changing nature of business has made the role of the executive's wife increasingly important. (p. 384)

In an autobiographical article with an angry undertone, Alice Lake (1958) reiterates Helfrich's (1967) list of corporate expectations of the wife and adds that her husband's company also dictates her style of dress, the books she reads, and the friends she selects. And, she adds, it is often done with "open arrogance" (Lake, 1958, p. 104). In a later study by Helfrich (1972), she states that the corporation not only scrutinizes the wife's dress, but her hair-style, manners, perfume, jewelry and drinking habits as well. Also "there should be no role reversal in the relationship...where the wife is the dominant partner...and no pathological relationship...in which the partners enjoy hurting each other" (Helfrich, 1972, p. 92). Upson (1974) chronicles her life as a corporate wife and includes a long list of "do's" and "don'ts" for the wife devoted to maintaining the corporate wife "image". Whyte (1951), Helfrich (1967; 1972), and Upson (1974), pushed the corporate stereotype of the executive wife as positive and functional.

Subsequent to Helfrich (1972), authors in the 1970's may have sensed absurdity in adhering to a litany of "wife" requirements designed to enhance the husband's image and promotability. A number of articles emerged investigating an alleged growing

dissatisfaction among wives to remain homebodies embroiled in serving both their husbands and the corporations. "Corporate wife" platitudes were challenged in articles such as "Corporate Wives: The Third Party" (Berkwitt, 1972), "Corporate Wife: Loneliest Job In Town" (Anonymous, 1974), "Corporate Wives: Victims of Benign Neglect" (Thompson, 1977), and "Management and Marriage-Push and Shove" (Coumbe, 1978). Seidenberg (1973) and Vandervelde (1979) joined the others in documenting their theories on the increasing dysfunction of the corporate wife role. The results of these studies demonstrated wives' disillusionment with traditional homemaker duties (Thompson, 1977; Seidenberg, 1972; 1973) and social/entertainment expectations (Berkwitt, 1972), disapproval of the stereotype of corporate wife behavior (Anonymous, 1974; Berkwitt, 1972), and affirmation of the enormous stresses created by transfers (Anonymous, 1974). Growing dissatisfaction among wives produced closer scrutiny of their careers as homemakers and social directors (Murray, 1979; Coumbe, 1978), and their roles as promoters of their husbands' career (Lake, 1958; Berkwitt, 1972). The result of this scrutiny produced a change in the omnipresent stereotype of the corporate wife (Vandervelde, 1979).

Role Definition.

The corporate wife's dissatisfaction with her role of homemaker primarily resulted from disillusionment with her previous pattern of relying on her husband's achievements from which to draw

self-esteem (Seidenberg, 1973; Vandervelde, 1979). Macke, Bohrnstedt, and Bernstein (1979) also postulated that, because women have been "traditionally limited to homemaking...(with) no direct access to many important societal rewards...(they) have ...remedied this deficiency by experiencing their husband's success--vicariously--as their own" (p. 51). Additionally, Mostow and Newberry (1975) stated that "the confinement of the (housewife) role, the increasing automation of household chores, and the declining status of motherhood, appear to contribute to a low self-esteem and to the feeling of worthlessness associated with depression" (p. 538).

The corporate wife, confused by her role definition, faces the dilemma of selecting a position in her marriage that enables her to create and maintain esteem. Out of this dilemma arose the need for her to analyze her triadic relationship between her executive-husband, and the corporation. Gullota (1981) explains the etiology of this triangular arrangement and the wife's role-confusion by analyzing the family system from a developmental perspective.

Initially, the wife serves a fundamental role as help-mate, hostess, supporter and comforter.. She shares her husband's enthusiasm, as he ascends the corporate ladder, with like zeal. As his success mounts, and he is promoted to the middle and upper management strata, his work day increases to ten or twelve hours a day, and the work week is six or seven days, instead of five. His

work becomes more complex, and he is less able to share the details and intricacies of it with his wife. Also, there is less time to do so. Her husband's recognition in the corporation increases while he maintains the position of primary wage earner. His wife's recognition is achieved through her roles of homemaker and mother. If she works outside the home, her principal financial contribution is considered to be "pin money". The husband's status, salary, and self-esteem escalates, requiring less and less of his wife's support for his continual advancement. His wife's self-esteem depreciates, as she becomes "adjunctive" in her role as supporter and partner to her husband. The wife's role changes in the family, creating a change in family structure. New alignments are formed in the corporate marriage as the husband "marries" the corporation, and his wife relies more heavily than ever on her children for status in her role as mother. Instead of her position becoming more valuable in the executive-husband, wife, corporation, triangle, it diminishes (Gullota, 1981, p. 152).

The corporate wife, then, has three avenues of liberation from the triad. One, unfortunately, is the destructive route of drug addiction or severe depression (Seidenberg, 1973). This type of woman may not necessarily be the most ill, of the lot, but she seems to have lost her ability to defend against a lifestyle that she perceives to have been thrust at her. Healthy recourse is either unavailable or temporarily unattainable.

Another route, less destructive than the first, but

problematic at best, is one in which the wife begrudgingly adheres to stereotypic regulations. She is not content with her domain as homemaker and mother. She views herself as trapped in a lifestyle from which she cannot escape. Realistic obstacles, or a poor self-image, prevents her from mobilizing other talents. The wife in this scenario is simply dragged through her marriage by inertia. She cannot suppress or repress her frustration, and some degree of depression may be her constant companion (Seidenberg, 1973).

A third option available to the corporate wife, is to choose a career, whether inside, or outside, the home, an upgrade in her education, or community participation, that she perceives as productive or valuable to her personal growth.

The value of a career outside the home, educational pursuits, or meaningful community work, are best seen in their potential to shift the wife's focus away from promoting her husband's career, and onto her own development. With these goals in place, the corporate wife can extricate herself from the corporate triangle, and acquire status, recognition and self-esteem, through her own merits, rather than through her husband's achievements (Macke, Borhnstedt, & Bernstein, 1979, p. 52).

Career Development.

Seidenberg (1972, Annual Readings in Sociology) awakened the corporate community to the career deprivation of the executive-wife in his article, "Dear Mr. Success: Consider Your Wife". Until

then, the executive-wife's "career" was one of homemaker/helpmate (Whyte, 1951; Upson, 1974; Thompson, 1977), or social planner (Helfrich, 1967, 1972; Lake, 1958; Thompson, 1977). Kanter (1977) identified a third role of "unpaid worker" (Kanter, 1977, p. 110). This role purportedly integrated the wife into corporate affairs as did social integration. Yet, whereas social inclusion provided positive integration, Kanter (1977) focused on the economic exploitation of wives who became integrated as "unpaid workers" (Kanter, 1977, p. 110). She cites four tasks that comprise this concept. They are:

Direct substitution (which) involved the wife in work that could also be done by a paid employee....The wife might stuff envelopes, do some typing, answer phones, deliver packages, or keep accounts and records....Indirect support included those entertainment functions that were assumed to be part of the wife's 'hostess' role, using her assumed skill as a relationship builder....Consulting involved discussion and advice on business matters....The wife acted as business adviser, a psychotherapist, a listener, or even an 'expert'Emotional aid, a part of the conventional housewife role, involved such services as 'sending him off in a good frame of mind' and keeping him satisfied with his work. (pps. 110-111)

Kanter's (1977) identification of these roles paralleled Whyte's (1951) "normative expectations" (Winstanly, 1984, p. 24) of the corporate wife as "wailing wall, sounding board, refueling station"

(Whyte, 1951, p. 87). The corporation recognized the importance of the wife's adjunctive role, but did not directly reward her for it (Kanter, 1977, p. 111).

Berkwitt (1972) discussed a "growing revolt" among wives in an article that first reviewed the homemaker/social career of the wife with a critical eye and surprising insight (Berkwitt, 1972, p. 61). He observes that, one reason for the

militancy of executive wives, is that a growing number of them now work....Usually better educated than the average, wives appear to be demanding more say in decisions affecting their own lives. In fact, many wives point out that only the husband is employed by the company, not the wife. "The executive wife is starting to put it on an either or basisShe sees her marriage as a fifty-fifty proposition, not the old eighty-twenty." (p. 61)

Berkwitt (1972) names Dollie Cole (wife of now deceased Edward Cole, former president of General Motors) as one who exemplifies the "growing revolt" among wives to remain in traditional homemaker roles. Mrs. Cole is said to own a women's clothing business. Yet, at the time Berkwitt wrote this article, Edward Cole was a stationary figure on the fourteenth floor of General Motors headquarters. He and Mrs. Cole were no longer expected to transfer. One major consequence of transfers, for wives, is the difficulty in maintaining consistency in whatever career they have chosen as they move from city to city, sometimes as frequently as

twice a year (Weissman & Paykel, 1972). For the wife who is currently transferring because her husband's career has not yet leveled off at the Chief Executive Officer rank, the prospect of owning a business is both impossible and ludicrous.

Two articles appeared in BusinessWeek that acknowledged the entry of corporate wives in the work force- "Company Couples Flourish" (Anonymous, 1976), and "The New Corporate Wife Goes to Work" (Anonymous, 1979). The first article (1976) discussed the role of the corporate wife as a corporate executive. "Soon after Citibank began actively recruiting women managers, around 1972, it discovered that its men managers were marrying them" (Anonymous, 1976, p. 54). The article further explained the emergence of a new problem. Wives, as executives, were being required to transfer, as were their husbands. The solution to the problem of "corporate couple" transfers was to arrange a relocation to the same city for the other spouse, when one was asked to transfer. If one spouse was asked to transfer and another verticle position in the same city was unavailable for the other spouse, transfers were sometimes turned down (Anonymous, 1976, p. 54). The enlightening aspect of this article was the viability in deflecting the transfer-urgency of the past. This article (1976) suggested that transfers, rather than simply being refused by the "corporate couple", can be delayed, or at least, manipulated, to accomodate the needs of the corporation, and the marital partners who both work for the corporation. Another anonymous author who wrote "Corporate

Wife-Loneliest Job in Town" (1974, Industry Week), believes that the executive should be consulted by the company before being required to transfer when a move is "inordinately bothersome to him, or members of his family. There should be no stigma attached to declining or delaying a transfer" (Anonymous, 1974, p. 44). It appears that this advice has been at least somewhat heeded by Citibank (Anonymous, 1976), and can be applied when any executive is expected to transfer, whether his wife is an executive as well, or pursuing a career in a completely different field. A reduction in the frequency of transfers, if they cannot be avoided, is the only method by which a career can continue for the woman married to a corporate executive (Murray, 1979, p. 119).

The second BusinessWeek article, "The New Corporate Wife Goes to Work," (1979) states that

a venerable corporate stereotype is beginning to fade. The executive wife, a lady who traditionally plays tennis, golf, and bridge as well as being wife, mother, and hostess in the service of the managerial lifestyle and her husband's career, is turning to other pursuits. Increasingly, these include a career of her own. (p. 88)

The reasons for rejecting the traditional role of homemaker, in lieu of a career, are greater than just for identity pursuits. A career of her own allows the corporate wife to enhance her role as helpmate to her husband's career. One executive, in the second BusinessWeek article (1979) says, "Susan's having a career gives us

a better relationship....She understands the occasional late night or the long business trip or the general bad humor after a particularly bad week" (Anonymous, 1979, p. 93). A career for the executive wife can also foster shared domestic responsibilities between spouses (Anonymous, 1979; Mostow & Newberry, 1975). This arrangement reduces the drudgery of sole household/childcare tasks for the wife (Mostow & Newberry, 1975), that may have initially caused her to reexamine traditional corporate wife expectations.

In an unpublished study on "The Adjustment of Corporate Wives: Their Marital Relationships and Career Development", Winstanley (1984) disputes the theory that wives without a career outside the home are generally depressed (Seidenberg, 1973; Margolis, 1976; Vandervelde, 1979). She found that wives who perceived themselves as satisfied in their marriages, also scored high on the Index of Marital Satisfaction survey regardless of whether the wives had careers outside the home, or homemaker careers. A career of homemaker, therefore, did not affect the marital satisfaction level of the wives in Winstanley's (1984) study.

Vandervelde (1979), a corporate wife and a psychotherapist, espouses combining the two roles of stereotypic "corporate wife" and career person. She summarizes the changes in the executive wife's career development by reflecting:

Independent woman...corporation wife; these words conjure up pictures of opposite types of women. Until recently it would have been impossible to combine the two descriptions in the

same person. Traditionally, women have been forced to choose one role or the other. And there is still hard evidence that formidable forces are trying to keep the corporation wife in her place. But our social system is changing, and corporate wives are beginning to force changes in the lagging corporate structure as well. The struggle is important and worthwhile because there are tremendous benefits in being both an independent woman and a part of the American corporate scene. Indeed, there is no good reason why women should not be able to have the best of both worlds. (pps. 19-20)

"Old traditions die hard." The corporate wife will never be able to fully denounce the stereotypic specifications of "corporate wifedom". It appears, however, that the stereotype is changing.


Summary.

A review of the literature on the corporate wife has presented her first as a woman who liked, and accepted, both her husband's corporate lifestyle, and her shaped stereotypic roles. After the emergence of Seidenberg's (1972, Annual Readings in Sociology) article, "Dear Mr. Success: Consider Your Wife", she has been perceived as "anxious, lonely, depressed...(and) victim of and reactor to the demands of the corporation" (Winstanly, 1984, pps. 1-2). Since the emergence of the two BusinessWeek articles, "Company Couples Flourish" (1976), and "The New Executive Wife Goes to Work" (1979), the corporate wife challenged her role

specifications, her career expectations, and the "corporate wife" stereotype.

Most of the literature on executive lifestyle supports theories that the corporate wife is negatively affected by her husband's loyalty to long work hours (Packard, 1962; Margolis, 1979), transfers (Weissman & Paykel, 1972; Seidenberg, 1973; Tiger, 1974; Margolis, 1976; Thompson, 1977), and travel (Howes, 1970; Seidenberg, 1973). Several studies have indicated that these vicissitudes of corporation life do not negatively affect the wife (Pospisil, 1974; Upson, 1974, Tropman 1977), or if they do, it is because she permits her husband's loyalty to the corporation through her own passivity and submission (Seidenberg, 1973; Margolis, 1976), or because of the financial accoutrements and other "trappings" available to her through corporate seduction (Packard, 1962; Seidenberg, 1973).

In the next section, the vicissitudes of corporation life will be examined in detail to provide an understanding of how the executive's long work hours, transfers to other company markets, and frequent traveling, increase his wife's loneliness (Seidenberg, 1973), restrict her career development (Margolis, 1976; Vandervelde, 1979), and shatter family cohesion (Feldberg & Kohen, 1976). The executive's loyalty to the corporation allows limited time with his family (Whyte, 1956; Packard, 1962; Seidenberg, 1973). The corporation becomes such a dominant partner in the executive's life, that a triad is formed by the executive-husband,



the corporation, and his wife, which has the potential to elevate the corporation to a position of supremacy in the family, and devalue the relationship between the executive-husband and his "corporate" wife (Margolis, 1976).

The Executive-Husband

Introduction.

Packard (1962) described the corporate life of the executive as a "veiled and curious world" (p. 13). He concluded that an executive's corporate membership requires his adherence to a multitude of behaviors and practices specific to corporate executive employment (Packard, 1962, pps. 18-19).

The corporate executive is required, or at least expected, to maintain an image of success. The executive "look" includes the proper style of dress, a particular mode of behavior, and possession of an attitude that exudes energy, confidence, well-being, and dedication (Packard, 1962; Wright, 1979).

Other demands "de rigeur" to corporate life are long work hours, sporadic and frequently fluctuating schedules, business travel, frequent transfers to other markets or company branches, and entertaining company personnel (Packard, 1962; Margolis, 1976). The results of the executive's loyalty to the corporation are restricted family involvement (Seidenberg, 1973; Margolis, 1976), limited leisure (Pahl & Pahl, 1971; Young & Wilmot, 1973), and thwarted sex lives (Packard, 1962; Barnett, 1968; Feinberg, 1976).

Loyalty.

The importance of loyalty in corporate life cannot be overstated. It is the reason why executives are promoted to climb the "pyramid" (Packard, 1962). Intelligence, education, motivation, desire, and previous corporate credentials are simply not enough (Wright, 1979). Loyalty means working long hours including weekends and taking work home from the office. Entertaining clients, and hosting company parties are also loyalty requirements. Loyalty includes adopting corporate rules of appearance, and behaving in a dignified manner. Loyalty means proclaiming pride in being with the same company for many years. For one's "continued efforts and time, you reap bountiful rewards in money, perquisites, prestige and financial security" (Wright, 1979, p.2). Most of all, loyalty means that the executive defers to his superiors and is "expected to maintain an attitude of piety...toward the corporation" (Packard, 1962, p. 19).

The practice of deference, within corporate circles, may be crucial because, often, an executive's ascendance within the corporation is achieved by being "tapped by someone higher in the power hierarchy....One must supplement proved talent with personal maneuvering and playing the power game" (Packard, 1962, p. 176). "Team play" and ingratiating one's self to "the boss" may entail intricate and multi-faceted self-abasement. The corporate demagogues spin a clever web of entanglement that has been carefully designed to control their "prey". The rules are clear

and the choices are few.

Loyalty to the company and "team play" become as important as the work that the executive actually accomplishes. The enumerations of "team play", codes of conduct, rules of appearance, and vows of obeisance become more and more specific as the executive rises in the corporate structure. The complexity with which the high-ranking executive must now observe loyalty precludes the work-autonomy that he may have sought to achieve by becoming a corporate executive. The paradox of corporate employment is that the more advanced in the corporate hierarchy the executive ascends, the less control he may actually have over the development of his product, or his ability to manage the affairs and the people he was hired to manage (Margolis, 1976). The increasing alienation that may result from this cycle is mitigated by large incomes, status, and "success" (Wright, 1979).

Appearance, Manner, and Style.

The many loyalty demands of corporate employment begin with proper appearance which, in some instances, is deemed to be crucial in the corporate world. The executive in corporate circles is not only readily judged by his dress, but by his overall style. Proper clothing, attractive physical characteristics, inimitable poise, discretionary speech and sophisticated manner, collectively create the "executive look". This "look" includes tallness, leanness, facial attractiveness with symmetrical features, and a

wholesomeness akin to that of the proverbial boy-next-door. Dark blue or gray suits, crisp white shirts, striped ties, and long, dark socks are the "uniform" of the corporate executive. "Neatness" and "nonconspicuousness" are mandatory qualities of appearance. If the executive ascends the corporate ladder to the position of vice-president, for instance, the "ties become silk (and) the suits become more clearly plain dark" but the dress code remains the same throughout the corporate pyramid (Packard, 1962 pps.96-98). John Z. DeLorean tells a revealing story about the emphasis on proper dress in Wright's (1979) book On A Clear Day You Can See General Motors. He says:

At General Motors, good appearance meant conservative dress. In my very first meeting as a GM employee in 1956 at Pontiac, half the session was taken up in discussion about some Vice-President downtown at head-quarters who was sent home that morning for wearing a brown suit. Only blue or black suits were tolerated then. (p.40)

It may seem as though 1956 was a long time ago and that a span of thirty years might have relaxed the dress code somewhat. "If the literature from the '50's and '60's were merely revised, one could use that as the existing guide for executive dress today....tallness, physical attractiveness is desirable, but overweight is quite detrimental" (Interview with Bill Krazewski, Kradow Corporation, Troy, Michigan, July 14, 1985).

Manner and style are also critical ingredients of the

"executive look". The corporate man should exude coolness and self-confidence that is devoid of overt displays of emotion. He has a "slow", "solemn", "well-modulated" manner of speaking that suggests circumspection (Packard, 1962, p. 100). He is dignified, down-to-earth, and maintains a certain social polish. Facial hair, extravagant living, flashy clothes (out of the office as well as in), and colourful or newsworthy behaviour are "out"; short hair, temperance, and subservience to one's superiors are "in" (Packard, 1962, pps. 101-102). "The personal style of the man is even more important than dress....We look for those with charisma and an assertive style especially if the position is one of sales" (Interview with Bill Krazewski, Kradow Corporation, Troy, Michigan, July, 14, 1985).

The executive's personal "style" must also reflect a willingness to participate in "team play". The key to survival in the corporate world, especially if advancement is the goal, is an adherence to the role of "team player". This means that the employee is loyal to his supervisors and promoters. It means unfailing support of the employer's demands, rules, needs, and decisions, even if those decisions are wrong. DeLorean declares that the key rule of survival in the corporate world is "Thou shalt not contradict the boss" (Wright, 1979, p. 46).

Long Work Hours.

An important reflection of corporate loyalty is the executive's commitment to working long hours. This aspect of corporate life is perhaps the most manifest barometer of company loyalty or "team play". The intimate loyalty ties to the corporation largely begin with the number of work hours required in executive positions. When Whyte wrote The Organization Man (1956), he found that

...an average work week...runs between fifty and sixty hours. Typically...the executive will put in about 9 1/2 hours in the office. Four out of five weekdays he will work nights. One night will be booked for business entertaining, another night he will probably spend at the office or in a protracted conference somewhere else. On two of the other nights he goes home. But it's no sanctuary he retreats to; it's a branch office....Most executives make a regular practice of doing the bulk of their business reading at home and some find it the best time to do their most serious business phone work. (p. 143)

Twenty years after Whyte's (1956) study, Margolis (1976) interviewed thirty corporate men in her study, The Abdication of Self: A Study Of Corporation Managers And Their Wives, and reported on the number of hours per week that these men devoted to work. From Margolis' (1976) study, it appears that if there has been a change in the number of hours executives are expected to work, then

the change has been an increase rather than a decline. Margolis (1976) found that

...commonly, the men put in from sixty to seventy hours.

Most left for work around 7:30 in the morning and did not return for eleven or twelve hours. Usually they brought back with them two or three more hours of work. (p. 42)

Margolis (1976) further quotes a composite "character" in her study named "Hogan", who describes the pressure to acquiesce to the loyalty demand of working long hours. "He" says:

"The man who works from nine to five is the man who will make his \$14,000 a year and no more...Because the company, as it starts promoting you, does indirectly say to you, 'You owe me more than nine to five. You owe me Saturdays and you owe me nights and you owe me weekends.' They don't say it directly but you get that message....Now the man who resists...will be labelled 'uncooperative, not willing to extend himself to the corporation,...not dependable.' You can make a choice, but ...you know damn well what you're doing to yourself. They won't fire you but you'll get by-passed when promotions come up. (p.50)

An executive's refusal to work long hours prevents, or at best, greatly limits, his ascendance in the corporate hierarchy.

Social entertaining of clients is another demand of corporate loyalty that is really part of the executive's commitment to long hours. Many executives view the entertainment requirements of

corporate life with disdain, but comply nevertheless. They resent the after-work affairs, the parties, the dinners, and the charity functions, but are keenly aware that entertaining is often pertinent to their work. They realize that it further diminishes the time spent at home in leisure, or time that can be utilized for office related business. Their wives may resent the money they must spend to dress "appropriately" for these functions, but it is all part of the corporate job description (Wright, 1979). Whyte (1956) explains how entertainment demands add to the already long work-day of the executive. He says that it is

...hard to tell where the workday ends and the 'pleasure' begins....If you count all the time required for cocktails, dinners, conferences, and conventions, there is no end to work. I think any responsible executive these days works practically all the hours he is awake. That's the part that kills you off. You can stand the office hours but you can't stand the rest. (p. 154)

Let us not assume that all or most executives are enticed to dedicate so many of their waking hours to work through corporate manipulation. The "movers and shakers" of our time would not admit to corporate programming. They work hard because they "have to". Their work is never completed. They have worked for ten or twelve hours a day for so long that they view it as a typical work day. Sedulous work means a seventeen or eighteen hour day, and they do not perceive themselves as being overworked. In fact, many

executives "love" the arduous schedule (Packard, 1962; Walker, 1976).

What is the executive's attraction to a life that demands such intense absorption in work? "The achievement motive appears to play a central role in executive success" (Fischer, 1976, p.23). The engulfing drive to move upward is catapulted by the titillation of competition, and by the enormous demands of the executive ego (Walker, 1976, p. 96). Whyte (1956) explains that, in the beginning, when the executive is "on the lower rungs" of the pyramid, competitive self-expression and achievement for status are meaningless. The man is more interested in finding material comforts, and in making his family happy. However,

as the...executive starts going ahead of his contemporaries
...the possibility of a top position becomes increasingly
provocative....He will never be the same. No longer can he
console himself with the thought that hard work never hurt
anybody and that neuroses don't come from anything but worry.
He knows that he has committed himself to a long and perhaps
bitter battle. Psychologically he can never go back or stand
still, and he senses well that the climb from here on is
going to involve him in increasing tensions (Whyte, 1956,
p. 157).

It appears then, that as the executive ascends the corporate "escalator", he begins to move from a position of inner-control to one whereby he is controlled either by a self-imposed need to

achieve or by covert beckonings deep from within the corporate walls. His work begins to dominate his family and home life, his leisure and his friendships. The corporate trance is inescapable (Fischer, 1976, p. 25). Fischer warns: "There are some...inherent dangers in becoming so completely absorbed with the need and desire to achieve that all else pales into insignificance" (Fischer, 1976, p. 25).

In order to achieve ascension in the corporate structure, the executive's devotion to long work hours is essential. "No executive rises to the top without a total commitment to the company--unless his father happens to be chairman" (Feinberg, 1976, p. 61). The "rise to the top" is everything. It is the executive's "raison d'être".

Penalties.

The corporate executive who does not comply with loyalty mandates can suffer grim consequences. Although the pressure to acquiesce is subtle, and the requests are polite, the expectation is as evident as the dark suit and the white shirt (Wright, 1979). DeMare (1976) relates the unpleasant story of a corporate executive whose promotability was shattered because of a breach of loyalty. DeMare's (1976) interviewee reveals:

"I made one bad mistake a few years ago and I think it's this that's virtually ended my career here. My big mistake, I believe, occurred one Friday evening after a hard day,

sitting around talking to VP named Rolly Spofford. Rolly was one of those guys who oozed charm. * I don't know whether he had any ability or not but...he was one of the easiest men to talk to I've ever met....I said a few things about the company that were more honest than tactful, but I said something about our revered chairman under the influence of Rolly's warming personality that was absolutely idiotic. I said: 'When is our old has-been going to retire, Rolly, so this company can catch up and come into the twentieth century?' There was only the faintest hesitation before Rolly leaned back in his big chair...and laughed, but some instinct in me told me I'd done it. Later I asked my friend in personnel. 'Yeah,' Mel told me, 'Rolly's one of the Old Man's fair haired boys. The Old Man brought him along....' I told Mel what I'd done....'If that remark ever gets back to the Old Man, your goose is cooked as far as going up in this company....' That's how I blew it. It's been ten years since that day and while I've...gone up routinely, all the good posts have eluded me....I should have gotten out long ago.... I don't like corporate life and I feel I'm living in a wastelandIt's the awful wastage of human life in this kind of set-up, the aridity, the petty politicking and the scary power scramble" (DeMare, 1976, pps. 53-54).

Needless to say, corporate life does not devour all its members with such voracity. There are those who casually keep pace with

the ebb and flow or find a comfortable niche that is quite fulfilling. Others bask in the challenge of the climb to the top and revel in the stimulation of aggressive ascendance. The regiment of team play does not compromise these executives' perception of self-worth and does not deter their avid loyalty, in either behavior or thought, to the corporation. The content executive, within the corporate structure, has either resolved the deference and homage struggle inherent in loyalty dictates, or his personality is naturally acquiescing (Margolis, 1976).

For many executives, however, the real conflict occurs when perfunctory passivity becomes an exercise in theatrics. For this type of man, there is a "fierce desire to control his own destiny, and, deep down, he resents yielding that control to the organization, no matter how velvety its grip" (Whyte, 1956, p. 151). The daily incantations of "team play" resound loudly and throbbingly in his head. He must not only concede to dominance, but also transfer willingly, work long and hard, placate the whims of his superiors, agree to the most unagreeable of notions, and socialize with his contemporaries, even if he cannot tolerate their company.

The most painful part of this itinerary for the executive is that he must also feign delight. Leadership, boldness, initiative, imagination, self-reliance and goal-orientation are traits often diluted under the oppression of loyalty demands (Packard, 1962; Margolis, 1979).

The most painful part of loyalty for his family is that the executive forfeits time with them to serve the corporation. The time most working men devote to their family is the time that the executive spends at work.

Transfers.

Transfers are essential components of corporate life. A transfer is a job change within the corporate structure, that requires the employee to move residually from one company branch location to another. Transfers usually occur because the employee is promoted, or a vertical level position at one company location becomes available and a person at a branch company is the one deemed most suitable to fill the vacancy (Margolis, 1976, p.31). Transfers provide advancement incentive and new prospects for opportunity, inspire adventure, promote challenge, and maintain the flow within the personnel pool (Margolis, 1976; Seidenberg, 1973).

Corporate ascendance necessitates transfers. They are difficult to refuse if the chosen executive aspires to promotions. "The man who will not move becomes the deadwood of the company, no longer worthy of serious consideration for top executive positions" (Seidenberg, 1973, p. 1).

In the corporate world, at least two to three transfers and sometimes as many as twenty-five may occur in an executive's employment history. The executive transfers his family and credentials, but leaves behind family of origin, friends, and

legacy in the community. His status in the corporation remains intact and may even increase, but his personality style adjusts with each new move. The executive can no longer expect to enjoy an adequate level of intimacy with those around him because he never knows when he will be called upon to move again. He must develop a method of coping that mitigates loss of friendship and eclipses alienation (Packard, 1962; Seidenberg, 1973). In "Moving Executives Around," the author, (1976, Fortune) who chose to remain anonymous, eloquently illustrates the erosion of intimacy inherent in transfers by stating that

mobility does subtle damage to the executives themselves.

One important consequence of their form of lucrative exile is that it becomes almost necessary to cultivate a "cool" social style. The easy informality and congeniality of American corporate life...may...mask a lack of concern with, and even isolation from, strong relationships with colleagues and friends; detachment as a matter of personal psychological survival. When one's social network will be destroyed every few years, there is little gain and considerable cost in trying to establish the complex mixture of trust, commitment, self-exposure, and freedom that is essential to serious friendships. (p. 182)

The "coolness" in style is easy to assimilate since it is the manner most preferred in corporate circles. The question of why this style is so popular, has never been answered. Perhaps stoical

temperment became most formidable with the advent of transferred executives.

Numerous transfers can have crippling consequences for both the executive and his family. Because the deleterious effects of transfers are becoming more widely acknowledged by corporate officers, executives are beginning to resist pressure to relocate, in lieu of the potential promotion precipitated by a willingness to transfer. Miller (1978) makes this observation:

The growing independence of today's employees and their concern about the quality of worklife as well as the growing number of women in the work-force and the influence of non-working wives are making it increasingly difficult for corporations to persuade employees to accept transfers to a new location. (p.43)

Relocations, though beneficial to the corporation, are not always beneficial to the executive, and certainly, if numerous, not to his wife and family.

Travel.

Another feature of corporate executive employment is travel. "Travel has become 'as much a hallmark of success in corporate America as have transfers' (Seidenberg, 1973, p. 39). An enormous percentage of executives must travel at least twice a year or as often as five days a week, for more than half the year, which can translate to nearly seventy-five percent of their work-life. On

the average, executives who travel for their jobs are away from home one day a week every month. This statistic is not considered extreme by either corporate standards or by the executives who take their jobs on the road (Howes, 1970, p. 28). Travel is so much a part of corporate life that the executive is usually disappointed if his job involves no travel at all (Howes, 1970, p. 27). On the decision that an executive makes regarding his willingness to travel, Howes (1970) quotes John Elliot, an industrial psychologist, who states that all executives

must make a career choice regarding travel. This decision is usually made early in his business career. He establishes his life pattern as that of being home every evening, involved in PTA and other community affairs, or he rationalizes that his main position in the family is that of wage earner. Giving his most to the company, he accepts travel and feels that with his success will come family success. An energetic man can become bored sitting behind a desk every day. An ideal job would involve fifteen to twenty percent travel. (p. 27)

Seidenberg (1973) concludes that beyond being bored with routine office work, travel is attractive to the executive because it has become glamorized with luxury hotels, bottomless expense accounts, and "playboy" club attendance (Seidenberg, 1973). Yet, enormous stress may be associated with travel for the executive. Travel increases the executive's risk of heart disease and nervous

disorders because he lives by a timetable, appointment book, and an airline schedule (Howes, 1970).

Travel can also create stress for the executive's family. The wife of the corporate executive may experience loneliness, and sole-child rearing responsibilities when her husband travels extensively. The greater the amount of executive travel, the greater the risk that intimacy between the corporate couple will be thwarted.

Summary.

The executive's loyalty to the corporation includes that he dress appropriately, work long hours, defer to his superiors, transfer to other company markets, and travel for the company. The executive is required to comply with loyalty mandates if he wants to ascend in the company hierarchy. The pressure from the corporation, on the executive, to comply with loyalty mandates, or "team play", can disrupt his home life because he may spend most of his time at work, and little time at home. Transfers are salient requirements of corporate life, and can also disrupt the home life of the executive because they pull the executive and his family away from familiar surroundings, and may exacerbate a feeling of alienation in both the executive and his wife. Executive travel is often a necessary part of corporate executive employment, and can produce stress for the executive and his family. The greater the frequency of the executive's travel, the greater the threat of loss

of intimacy between the executive and the corporate wife. The next section examines the effects of the executive-husband's commitment to the corporation on the corporate wife, and the family.

Effects of the Corporate Lifestyle on the Corporate Wife and the Family

Introduction.

The consequences of the executive's loyalty to the corporation, for the corporate wife, may include an increase in her loneliness and possible depression, limited time for leisure with her husband, infrequent opportunities for sexual enjoyment, career fragmentation and social alienation with every transfer, and sole child-rearing responsibilities due to her husband's frequent absence from home.

Effects of Loyalty and Long Work Hours on the Family.

The executive's loyalty to the corporation often prevents him from spending much time at home. The effect that the executive-husband's commitment to long work hours has on his wife is an increase in her loneliness (Whyte, 1956; Margolis, 1976). The executive's long hours away from home creates a complicated form of loneliness that Seidenberg (1973) calls the "principal disease" of the corporate wife. Seidenberg (1973) explains that any person who is left alone as much as the corporate wife, is justified in feeling intensely lonely.

When Whyte (1951) first wrote a series of Fortune articles on the corporate wife, he presented her as a woman who liked corporate life. She was not just tolerating it or making the most out of a bad situation. Whyte (1951) perceived the wife as feeling that the corporation was responsible for making her husband overwork. Moreover, she shared the corporation's interests in accelerating her husband up the ladder of success. She seemed to prefer the large salary and perquisites over her husband's company, relinquishing him willingly to corporate domination. Whyte (1951) perceived an alliance between the wife and the corporation against the husband, instead of an alliance between the husband and the corporation against the wife (Whyte, November, 1951, p. 156). When Whyte (1956) later wrote The Organization Man, he relented that the wife is negatively affected by her husband's long work hours (Whyte, 1956, pps. 146-147).

However positively or negatively affected the wife is by her husband's loyalty to the corporation, Whyte (1951) apparently perceived some willingness from the wife to tolerate corporate life because of the financial accoutrements it provides. The corporate lifestyle is both lucrative and seductive. In exchange for aiding her husband up the corporate ladder of success, the wife often had to forfeit her own career and ambitions so that she could focus her energies on helping her husband, in his career. Seidenberg (1973) defends the wife's vulnerability to corporate seduction. He states that the executive wife begins to believe the myth that

sacrificing her needs and ambitions are noble and dutiful. She also falls prey to believing a variety of other myths. She begins to convince herself that a healthy salary compensates for her husband's chronic absence where both she and her children are concerned; that her roles of homemaker, nurturer, sounding board, "single-parent", party-giver, and "Rock-of-Gibraltar" are more valuable than a career; and that her husband's loyalty to the corporation is benefiting her as much as it is him. The wife is led to believe that her ability to accept these notions measures her adequacy as a wife (Seidenberg, 1973, p.77). Her failure to adopt these various roles, which have been inadvertently assigned to her by the corporate lifestyle, means that she is not only less valuable to the corporation because she is not helping her husband ascend in the corporate hierarchy, but she is less valuable as a person because she is not doing "her job". The "trap" that she may fall into, is believing that she must become as loyal to the corporation, as is her husband. The corporate wife's loyalty then, becomes as contagious as her husband's. Her loyalty to the corporation emphasizes making a comfortable and peaceful home for her husband, contributing to his career by participating in social and public functions that help to maintain his status, and tending to their children (Macke, Bohrnstedt, & Bernstein, 1979; Gullota, 1981). The executive-wife appears to be fulfilled, while attempting to live her life vicariously through her husband, with the intention of reaping whatever self-esteem she can from his success

(Macke, Bohrnstedt, & Bernstein, 1979). In actuality, Macke, Bohrnstedt, and Bernstein found that, although a husband's high income does indirectly increase a wife's self-esteem, his increased status, combined with her "relative lack of independent achievement", may actually lower her feelings of self-confidence and competence (p. 51).

Although there may be many reasons for family disharmony, other than the executive's adherence to loyalty demands, Margolis (1976) explains the role that the corporation plays in alienating the executive-husband from his family. The excessive work requirements, inherent in his allegiance to company loyalty, breeds not only loneliness, but also disappointment and hurt for his family. Margolis states that the family fits its life around the corporate time demands and families learn to tolerate the cancelled weekend plans, adjust to dinners alone, and tip-toe around the house when dad is home, but emersed in work (Margolis, 1979, p. 50). "By turning the (man) into a husband and father who is there but not available, the corporation can create a subtle wall of rejection between the man and his family which will strain family relationships" (Margolis, 1976, p. 51). Loneliness for the executive, as husband and father then, infiltrates the entire family, not just the life of his wife.

Although Seidenberg (1973) commented that the corporate wife's loneliness is a natural consequence of her husband's long hours away from home, he also believes that the woman who is loneliest

without her husband around is one that is the most emotionally empty. Caught up in household facetiousness and compulsive care of her children without devoting any real quality time to developing her relationship with them, she is stimulus-starved and has self-perpetuated her plight (Seidenberg, 1973, pps. 107-108). Seidenberg (1973) explains that, although the corporate wife's atrophy derives from a feeling of abandonment by her husband, that would tax the resources of any person, she continues to focus on her husband for companionship that is not available, and cultivates her husband's ambitions, instead of her own. Seidenberg (1973) says:

it is when the self is lost or communication with the self is severed that "the other" becomes so desperately important.... When she (the corporate wife) exhibits the inevitable effects of loss of self, she is called troublesome and lacking in emotional maturity. The entire corporate life style encourages her to live solely through and by her husband; any personal aspiration or ambition is to be promptly extinguished. Any interest or pleasure with other people is prohibited. And she is not to be fearful or lonely when he is away? (p. 105)

The corporate life-style diminishes the wife's resourcefulness but mocks her when she is unable to transcend its demands.

Vandervelde (1979) comments further on the depressed and exceedingly lonely wife. She believes that this type of wife is

understimulated and uninspired to fill the void of surplus time alone. This is particularly true of housebound wives, who perceive time alone to be a burden and a curse. If a wife has personal ambitions and a solid self-image of independence, she can use free time creatively to abate her loneliness (Vandervelde, 1979, p. 209). "Instead of resenting her husband's absences, the independent wife may look forward to them; not because she can't stand to be with him, but because this gives her the best of both worlds" (Vandervelde, 1979, p. 209).

In contrast to Vandervelde (1979) who appears to criticize the wife for feeling lonely for her husband, Applebaum (1978) states that the corporate wife's loneliness is a normal reaction, because most forms of loneliness are perceived by the clinical community as normal reactions to a loss (Applebaum, 1978, p. 14). Because of her husband's limited time at home, the corporate wife's "loss" is that of her husband to the corporation, or at least, loss of time, that they are able to spend together. Even during the the process of individuation, when the corporate wife may seek to achieve a greater sense of personal independence, will loneliness occur. "An experience of loss accompanies every step in the individuation process. Anxiety, and consequently some regression, would be expected as normal concomitants, with longing for re-establishment of the former tie and some feelings of loneliness" (Applebaum, 1978, p. 15). Applebaum further explains that apprehension usually accompanies loneliness which seems "to derive from fear of

continued isolation" (p. 14). The corporate wife must contemplate "continued isolation" as long as her husband remains loyal to corporate doctrine. Her anxiety, or apprehension, concerns her fear of increasing isolation from her husband, and even more terrifying, the fear of "obliteration" even when no such danger exists (Applebaum, 1978, p. 14). The anxiety accompanying her loneliness forces the wife to decide whether to pursue emotional relatedness with her frequently-absent husband, or pursue her own independence of him. This decision may be a difficult one for her to face, yet successful completion of the process of individuation leads to an increase in autonomy and self-esteem. Greater personal autonomy, within her perhaps ailing marriage, may allow her to resolve or abate some of her loneliness (Applebaum, 1978, p. 15). A substantial increase in the wife's autonomy and independence, however, may lead to divorce.

Despite the varied authors' different opinions on the etiology of loneliness, what about the woman whose husband is away from home so many hours that he is there only to sleep? No matter how accomplished, gregarious, intelligent, vivacious, or creative a woman is, she, like her husband, and all social beings, require an intimacy, that is not so easily achieved in neighborhood and work friendships. Feldberg & Kohen (1976) explain that

most people view the family primarily as an emotional unit, oriented to individual well-being, and expect it to be the one group in which they will find stable interpersonal

relationships which offer support, sharing, and intimate communication. (p. 152)

The corporate wife and her executive-husband, whose time together is intensely diminished, due to the demands of his work, may, consequently, experience great reduction, or elimination, of all positive communication, sharing of private thoughts, and mutual support. Their time together may become so reduced that they begin to share a level of intimacy no greater than, perhaps, the type experienced by college roommates who have been thrown together by alphabetical or random arrangement. Erickson's life stage of Intimacy vs. Isolation stresses that successful resolution of intimacy means a close relationship with a spouse which includes "sharing thoughts, spending time with them and expressing warm feelings for them" (Troll, 1975, p. 7). Roommates, acquaintances, work colleagues, and even friends, assume that there are boundaries to their relationships and expect that these limits will be respected. In the marital union, boundaries are established as well, to assure healthy doses of engagement, or emotional closeness between spouses with intent to diminish enmeshment or emotional smothering (Minuchin, 1974, pps. 52-53). Disillusionment and bitterness are natural consequences of the shattered expectation of intimacy, when intimacy is often the reason why two people marry in the first place.

The executive's loyalty to the corporation not only greatly reduces the corporate couple's time, needed for intimacy, it also

reduces the executive's time allotted for leisure.

Limited Leisure.

The intensity of the executive's work life leaves him little time for either personal leisure, or leisure with his wife and family. Leisure is defined as the "continuation of personal development, entertainment and recuperation" (Young & Wilmot, 1973, p.223). Often, these three criteria are so intertwined with the work life of the executive that it is difficult to understand how the executive is truly able to unwind and relax.

In Whyte's (1956) study, The Organization Man, the executives he interviewed had appreciable interest in art, music, reading and hobbies, but few had the actual time to devote to them. If the executive had a hobby, he thrust himself into it for the pleasure of restoring himself, not because it had any leisurely value. Hobbies, then, became therapeutic as a means of rejuvenating the executive's energies for work. Executives "are never less at leisure than when they are at leisure" (Whyte, 1956, p. 150).

In their study, Managers and Their Wives, Pahl and Pahl (1971) reported differences in work and leisure habits between executives and the people they manage. They revealed that executives, when questioned about leisure, cited work as the most satisfying life-interest. Weekends for both executives and their subordinates included similar leisurely activities, but the two groups differed in that the executives' primary interest was in their work. Pahl &

Pahl (1971) related that

Saturday mornings might be spent in going shopping....The family might have coffee out and the husband might have his hair cut. In the afternoon...sport dominated the men's livesFathers sometimes took young children out, but not always. Evenings were spent watching television or with friends. Few had lavish holidays....The men appeared to have few interests apart from their work, although we took considerable pains to probe this in the extended interviews.

(p. 258)

The executive's preoccupation with work to the exclusion of leisure appears to have undesirable consequences for both the executive and his family, especially since present-day society is one in which leisure is becoming synonymous with good physical and mental health. The executive, who is obsessed with work is viewed, by the rest of society, as a non-conformist and somewhat of an oddity (Pahl & Pahl, 1971).

In their study of British family life, delineating work habits and leisure according to socio-economic class strata, Young and Willmot (1973) also discovered that professional and managerial types recuperated from work differently than did their subordinates. The managerial group's work was less physically demanding than the work of the other workers and "they (managerial) chose to relax in a non-relaxed way, actively engaged in something in which they could absorb themselves. The one absorption shut out

the other temporarily" (Young & Wilmot, 1973, p.223).

From the existing literature on executive leisure, the executive is clearly beginning to emerge as a driven man. If his devotion to work is not enough to brand him a zealot, then his leisure habits surely will. Pahl (1971) calls executives "willing-slaves to the system....Very often it is the fear of falling rather than the positive aspiration to climb which pushes these men on" (Pahl, 1971, pps. 258-259). The "push" to escalate creates tension within the man that carries over from work to home. The essential problem is that the man is caught between a popular social myth and his own corporate reality, and this creates for him an insolvable conflict. In keeping with the current social mythology, he wants to believe, and he wants his family to believe, that family life is the most important aspect of his life. But the reality is that his job demands most of his time and he gives it willingly, because the greatest part of his personal satisfaction comes from work (Pahl, 1971, pps. 259-260).

All of this becomes clear when one sees that a man caught in this conflict will talk about craving leisure time to spend with his family, but when he actually takes such leisure time, he is too tense to enjoy it because he is thinking about the work that is not getting done.

Just as loyalty and the demands of work limit the amount of time an executive is willing to devote to leisure, his frequent absence from home may severely limit the amount of time set aside

for sexual activity with his wife. The infrequency of sexual contact may exacerbate the wife's feelings of alienation from her husband, may increase the wife's loneliness, and eventually, may tear the marriage apart.

Thwarted Sex Lives.

Because of all the demands on the executive, corporate life is "not conducive to good family life". One area of executive life particularly "affected...and often neglected" is the sexual relationship between the executive-husband and his wife. The executive is so busy with work that "sexual activity plays a lesser role for him than it does for most men" (Packard, 1962, pps. 224-225).

Packard (1962) cites the Warner and Abegglen survey that studied 8300 executives which revealed that executives derive little pleasure from sexual activity. Packard (1962) attributes this apparent disinterest in sex to an unaffectionate and tenderless style which has been fostered in the executive suite. The executive's work life is well-planned and ritualistic. He also expects that his sex life will be as orderly. After the executive has finished with whatever work he brought home at the end of the day, he retreats to his bedroom where he finds his wife sleeping or indifferent to his lack of tenderness (Packard, 1962, p. 225). The executive-wife may feel that when she first married her husband ...he was a very good lover, and she, thrilled, to her

introduction into sex life. But as the man advanced up the executive ladder he became so enamored of his work that he was less conscious of his role as a marital lover....(the sexual relationship) was rather hastily arrived at and without all those preliminaries, that mean so much to a woman. (p. 226)

Of course, not all executives are poor lovers. Some executives make time for sexual activity by taking their wives away for a weekend, or to a hotel. Some executives, however, seem able to relax only when in the arms of a mistress. Their preoccupation with work, both in the office, and at home, interferes with their ability to stop thinking about work, and concentrate on their wives (Packard, 1962, p. 226).

Because the executive, at home, is often besieged with paperwork or fretting about his multitudinous responsibilities, his insidious preoccupation with work may breed fatigue or even disinterest in sex, altogether. Home becomes a haven for rest and a hide-a-way from the pressure at work. His wife wants and needs his company but the executive is either too preoccupied with his work, or too weary from his work, to participate. She becomes bitter and resentful and the husband retaliates by burying himself deeper in work. The wife, in turn, withholds sex as an expression of her anger, even though intimacy is what she craves most. The executive, who is not able to satisfy the sexual/aggressive drive through sexual intimacy, may satisfy this drive through his work.

The executive-husband, or his wife, may seek sexual satisfaction outside the marriage, when sexual intimacy needs are not met within the marriage, thus imposing even greater emotional distance between the couple. However, extra-marital sex is not nearly as threatening to the stability of the marital union as are the demands of the corporation (Barnett, 1968, pps. 27-29) "The corporation is taking the place of the other woman in the so-called eternal triangle, and the staggering impact on executive marriages suggests that big business is the most demanding mistress of all" (Barnett, 1968, p.26).

Seidenberg (1967) considers that there are infidelities in marriage, other than sexual ones. "Many kinds of unfaithfulness in marriage have no voice, whereas sexual infidelity often assumes an exaggerated importance" (Seidenberg, 1967, p. 27). The executive who devotes himself exclusively to his work or the wife who completely immerses herself in the care of her children, each without regard to the other partner's needs, are "unfaithful". Because "sharing a mate with others or other interests is probably the chief source of feelings of infidelity", a sexual component need not be present for jealousy to occur (Seidenberg, 1967, p. 29). The corporate wife who must share her husband with the corporation and all its demands, may feel jealous of the amount of time he devotes to the corporation. Because the executive-husband may spend minimal time with her at home, and so much time with others at work, his wife may feel that her husband's interest in

the corporation, and in his colleagues, betray his interest in her. The corporate wife, then, may feel as betrayed by her husband's devotion to work as the woman whose husband has had an extra-marital affair. Yet, the complaints of the corporate wife about her husband's devotion to work would be perceived as trivial and petty, alongside the real or imagined horror, of a mate's sexual infidelity. Because humiliation by the offended partner often accompanies sexual infidelity, it is perceived with greater abhorrence than infidelities of a non-sexual kind. Sexual infidelity has often been the cause of marital dissolution, but not as often as one might think. Other infidelities, of a non-sexual kind, have been as damaging to marital unity and cohesion as have sexual infidelities (Seidenberg, 1967, pps. 30-31).

Feinberg (1976) identifies the concept of "corporate bigamy" to explain the stress between job and family. The corporate bigamist is an executive who is married to both his wife and his company. "He is devoted to one, dedicated to the other" (Feinberg, 1976, p. 61). Feinberg concludes that although the executive may be busy, and at times perceives himself as too busy for sexual relations, he must find time to gratify his needs as well as his wife's, in the interest of marital harmony. The executive is an expert in time management in the office, and he can extend this knowledge to the home (Feinberg, 1976, pps. 61-63).

Although there may be other reasons for limited leisure and sexual problems in the corporate-executive family, the executive's

loyalty to the corporation limits his time for leisurely and sexual activities, which can alienate him from his family, and increase his wife's loneliness, in much the same way as do his demands of work. Transferring the executive to other company markets produces other forms of alienation for the corporate family. The continual uprooting that transfers produce, may dissolve friendships and kindred ties for both the executive and his family. His wife's loneliness may also increase because often, she is relocated without prospect for employment, and she does not have the same opportunity to develop new immediate friendships, as does her husband through his work. Also, transfers create the additional hardship of interrupting the executive-wife's career or educational pursuits.

Effects of Transfers on Family Life.

The availability of literature, commenting on the impact of transfers on family life, is plentiful. Most of the literature reports on the destructive effects, on the family, of moving, particularly, on the executive wife (Berkwith, 1972; Weissman & Paykel, 1972; Seidenberg, 1973; Korn, 1974; Tiger, 1974; Foegen, 1977; Foster & Liebranz, 1977; Thompson, 1977; Miller, 1978; Gullota, 1981). A few articles emerged stating that transfers were adventurous (Upson, 1974), beneficial to marital cohesion (Tropman, 1977), and fostered individual growth (Pospisil, 1974).

Seidenberg (1973), who wrote of the effects that transfers

have on both corporate executives and their wives in his book, Corporate Wives-Corporate Casualties?, states that, although there are those who welcome transiency and thrive on it, as a daring adventure, disclaiming the psychological need for roots and nostalgic surroundings, most people suffer extensive emotional damage in direct proportion to the number of moves that they have made. "People do survive a dozen or more moves, a tribute to their iron will and determination, but the cost in withering and alienation may be staggering" (Seidenberg, 1973, p. 25).

The executive who is "asked" to relocate usually expects to take his family with him. During the 1950's and 1960's, wives assented dutifully. Most were housewives and mothers with few aspirations for their own careers (Whyte, 1951; Seidenberg, 1973). After the sex-role revolution, and women's activist movements of the 1960's and early 1970's, women began to join the work force in droves. They wanted careers for themselves and a voice in decision-making in the home (Berkwith, 1972). Corporate relocations became a problem for executive wives, since transfers were part and parcel of corporate life, and remaining married to their executive-husbands meant that they had to accompany them cross-country. "In effect, she (corporate wife) has been a prisoner of her husband's job" (Berkwith, 1972, p. 61).

Seidenberg (1972) and Tiger (1974) contrasts the adjustment of the husband whose credentials are "easily transferrable" with that of his wife whose entire identity may be dependent upon her

community involvement and her friends, and she is "rarely transferrable" (Seidenberg, 1972, p. 162). Seidenberg (1972) calls these women "casualties of success", and further adds that

often they become defeated people....They are seen clinically during their third and fourth decades of life, chronically depressed, lacking in hope or desire, frequently addicted to alcohol, tranquilizers and barbiturates. (p. 162)

The process of moving to a new location is highly stressful even when the new home is within the same geographical vicinity as the old one. Transferring to an entirely different city generates an even higher degree of stress even though the general belief in American culture is that contemporary mobility is an anxiety-free adventure (Weissman & Paykel, 1972, p. 26).

In A Nation of Strangers, Packard (1972) describes the rootlessness and alienation that is prevalent among mobile Americans. He quotes one woman, who exemplifies these conditions. She says

I cried when we left Florida. I cried when we left Darien.

It is an emotional upheaval no matter what. But this is the way my husband's work takes him. No doubt we will be

transferred again within another two or three years. (p. 30)

Packard (1972) interviewed many of the people for his book, in the highly mobile community of Darien (Connecticut), and adds this quip; "A wife in Darien doesn't burst out laughing when someone says IBM means 'I've been moved.' She's heard it before no matter

what company her husband works for" (Packard, 1972, p. 18). Little Dorothy, in The Wizard of Oz, tearfully exclaimed, "There's no place like home!" But for thousands of transported executive families, who knows where home really is? Tiger (1974) refers to this rootless group as psychologically homeless people. He further states that a "fundamental human requirement (is) social continuity and personal stability" (Tiger, 1974, p. 139). The result of fragmentation in this area is often depression (Berkwith, 1972; Seidenberg, 1972; Weissman & Paykel, 1972; Tiger, 1974; Margolis, 1976; Vandervelde, 1979).

When Seidenberg (1972, Annual Readings in Sociology) first wrote about corporate wives, in an article entitled "Dear Mr. Success: Consider Your Wife", he interviewed several dozen women and extrapolated theories from his own clinical practice. Seidenberg was among three authors, in 1972, who positively correlated depression with frequent transfers (Seidenberg, 1972; Berkwith, 1972; Weissman & Paykel, 1972).

In their study of 140 depressed women, in New Haven, Connecticut, Weissman and Paykel (1972) found that although some women mentioned moving as a possible explanation for feeling depressed, many of the women cited "increased loneliness, increased marital friction, problems with children, career frustrations, (and) identity confusion" as sources of depression (Weissman & Paykel, 1972, p. 26). Yet the authors conclude that these difficulties and stresses are the by-products of moving and

relocation, that have emerged and are manifested, as depressive symptoms. For these women, Weissman and Paykel (1972) discovered, the trauma of being transferred had infiltrated other areas of their lives (Weissman & Paykel, 1972, p 26).

Miller (1978) found that the corporate wife's hostilities and resentments, toward transfers, are born of a belief that she has no choice but to give up her career and community attachments, and follow her husband. The wife struggles with her growing animosity and often displaces it onto her husband which results in marital friction. "If one partner feels that they're going along with something they don't want to do, resentment will only pull the two of them apart" (Miller, 1978, p. 44).

Because many families adjust, to moves, with ease and resilience, there are those who regard the inability to adjust to mobile life with cynicism and even contempt. Seidenberg (1973) relates the story of a woman who gave up a nursing career when she and her husband embarked upon a succession of relocations and attempted to live unsuccessfully in the shadow of her husband's success. She became increasingly depressed and felt weak and ungrateful toward their accumulated status with each move. No one seemed to understand her enormous burden of obeisance (Seidenberg, 1973, pps. 4-5). "Her parents in their less generous moments called her selfish and spoiled; when they felt charitable they called her mentally ill" (Seidenberg, 1973, p. 4). Seidenberg blames a submissive and docile personality for her emotional decline. If

only she had resumed her career with each move, claims Seidenberg, she may have avoided alcoholism and a mental breakdown (Seidenberg, 1973, p. 5). He concludes the story with this statement:

The human spirit is...such that it does not take easily to diminution or anonymity once it has known better things....

In a world where (people) are recognized only by their credentials, to lose credentials is to cease being a human being. (p. 5)

Yet wives of numerous relocated executives, who are even able to begin a career, warrant rousing applause. Weissman and Paykel (1972) discovered that many women who attempt to resume a career, or more realistically, seek employment after a transfer, are forced to accept jobs below their level of education, training, and expertise, because they walk into an interview with fragmented work histories or incomplete educations (Weissman & Paykel, 1972, - p. 27). The woman who has established herself in a career and "gotten on the escalator" just as her husband has, is no more willing to abdicate an upwardly mobile position in order to accommodate her husband's transfer, than her husband would be to accommodate hers (Foegen, 1977, p. 415).

In an autobiographical article, "Corporate Wives: Victims of Benign Neglect", Thompson (1977) dramatically relates her profound resentments toward transferring, and toward a "career" consisting of traditional homemaker duties. She begs "Mr. Manager" to stop the cross-country trek so that wives can commence careers outside

the home and suggests that for the homemaker, the corporation pay the wife increments as her husband increases his salary. Thompson's most radical proposal is that husbands, as they reach middle age, when their health begins to falter, switch roles with their wives. The men can then stay home, while their wives work full-time (Thompson, 1977, pps. 87-88). Although there appears to be a glint of humor in this proposal, it is viable, since more and more women are being elevated to corporate positions, and are being required to transfer, as are men (Packard, 1962; Kanter, 1977).

Miller (1978) states that corporations are beginning to hear the pleas of wives, and tolerate the corporate family's refusal to transfer. He adds that

the changing role of women in American society has brought to the forefront the problems involved in corporate relocations. It has sown the seeds of potential crisis in the executive family. When a wife defines herself as a legitimate human being, it becomes increasingly more difficult for her to stand passively in the face of family upheavals brought about by continuing corporate moves. She is less willing to relegate herself to the baggage train of her Caesar's campaigns, less willing to bear the ever inflating psychic costs of building a new identity in each new community. (pps. 44-45)

Since the disruptive, and sometimes destructive, consequences of numerous relocations have been documented to affect both the

executive and his wife, the increasing demands of both, to reduce the frequency of transfers, will inevitably change corporate expectations. There is no such voice for corporate children.

Whereas an abundance of literature exists on wives, there is little written about the effects of transfers on children. Seidenberg's (1973) "Corporate Children On The Move", in his book Corporate Wives-Corporate Casualties?, and Packard's (1972) "Impact On The Children", in his book, A Nation of Strangers, are the most comprehensive literary works that examine the problem of corporate children.

The most traumatic ages for moving children are 3-5 and 14-16 (Seidenberg, 1973, p. 49; Packard, 1972, p. 248). Young children of preschool age are preoccupied with sameness. "Moving may be quite traumatic in that it disturbs this rigidity" (Packard, 1972, p. 248). High school students have the most difficulty moving in the middle of the school year, because an entire semester can be lost in the process (Seidenberg, 1973, p. 53), and high school age children have more difficulty making friends than children in grammar school (Packard, 1972, p. 248).

School performance is a good barometer of transfer trauma in school-age children. However, school grades and I.Q. scores show low significance in differences between transferred and non-transferred students. Yet, students who have above average ability seem to weather transfers better than their less capable peers. The struggling student, with academic problems, often

becomes the student who develops emotional problems, as well (Packard, 1972, p. 248).

Seidenberg (1973) warns that loneliness and despair occurs when peer support is shattered because of a move. A child may also withdraw from family members if he feels unduly manipulated or transported against his will. The child's adjustment, then, to a new environment is particularly guarded (Seidenberg, 1973, p. 54). Children who adjust most successfully are those with stable home environments where affection is open, and limits are firm (Packard, 1972, p. 255).

Tiger (1974) also discusses the difficulties that children experience when they relocate. He relates a story of two adolescent children, from the same family, who flatly refused to transfer after having attended eight different schools. These youngsters were not impressed or cajoled by parental talk of increased income and status. The parents respected the wishes of their children and this family did not transfer (Tiger, 1974, p. 140). Whatever financial accoutrements, or increased status of the parents' may have been lost because this family refused to move, their children may have gained in stability, and academic and emotional continuity.

Even when the corporate family is able to successfully adjust to transfers, executive travel poses hardships on the continuity and cohesion of the family unit.

Effects of Executive Travel on the Corporate Wife and Her Family.

It has been said of executive travel that it is not only good for the "soul" of the executive, but also good for his family (Howes, 1970, p. 28). Travel can neutralize the conflict between two dominant or two submissive personalities. A husband's promotion, via his willingness to travel, can increase the family income, and increase a wife's admiration of her husband's elevated status, prestige, and advancement. However, some regrettable consequences of executive travel, for the corporate wife, are that she experiences the fear of being alone at night, general loneliness, and exclusive child-rearing responsibilities (Howes, 1970).

In How To Survive As A Corporate Wife, Upson (1974) describes life with a traveling salesman, and narrates "moments of real loneliness and minutes of terror and hours of boredom", during periods when her husband was out-of-town (Upson, 1974, p. 23). Upson advises the wives of traveling men to remain as busy as possible (Upson, 1974, pps. 38-43), and to develop ingenuity as a valuable tool in adjusting to time alone (Upson, 1974, p. 16). She also suggests to wives that if they pamper and spoil their husbands when home, they will not be tempted to experiment with extra-marital affairs while traveling (Upson, 1974, p. 36).

The corporate wife's adjustment to her husband's travel may not always occur so easily, and she has been criticized, in the

literature, when the adjustment has been particularly difficult. Despite the title of Howes (1970, Today's Health) article, "Job Travel Isn't Glamorous For Him or Her", Howes cites one psychiatric expert after another who blames the wife's real or imagined fears and burdens on her immaturity and insecurity. She even goes as far as to surmise that the wife who consoles herself with alcohol or a lover when her husband is on the road, is mentally ill. Yet, Howes espouses tolerance by the wife of a husband's occasional affair while he is traveling (Howes, 1970 pps. 28-29). In her description of this type of woman, Howes does not differentiate between the wife whose husband travels one day a week or five days a week, for seven, eight or nine months out of the year—year after year. This distinction is crucial, in determining whether the wife's complaints and infidelities are understandable, or the marks of an unstable, and highly dependent, personality (Seidenberg, 1973).

Children of traveling fathers, like their mothers, experience both difficulties and successes in adjusting to their father's travel commitments. Upson (1974) says: "I cannot find a single problem that might have been averted if Bob (husband) was a 'full-time' daddy" (Upson, 1974, p. 50). This conclusion follows a story about her eleven-year-old son whose math difficulties were attributed, by a teacher, to his father's frequent absence from home. Upson, in an optimistic tone consistent throughout her book, believes that too many problems of children have been blamed on their fathers' traveling. A father's devotion of quality time,

says Upson, is what children cherish most, even if quantity is limited. Problems and symptoms in children will occur with or without the presence of a "full-time" father (Upson, 1974, pps. 49-50).

Children who do develop symptoms due to their father's business travel are perceived by Howes (1970) as insecure, as were the wives in her article. However, Howes recognizes the real difficulties that children have in differentiating authority boundaries, when one parent is frequently absent. She quotes one wife in her study who says: "These separations are confusing to the children. They wonder who is boss. All week I do the disciplining and make the decisions, then their father comes home and he is insistent on being the boss" (Howes, 1970, p. 29). Because children do not articulate their stresses and concerns as well as adults, their problems manifest themselves, more commonly, in the form of symptoms. Gullota (1981) notes that, although the wife is the first to express pain in the family, families often seek professional help because of the pain expressed in children's symptoms. The child becomes the "identified patient", who represents the difficulties felt by all members of the family (Gullota, 1981, p. 154).

During the last few decades when divorce in America has been at its highest, many children live in single-parent households, where only the mother is present, daily. Once children have adjusted to life with a single parent, whatever trauma may have

occured, levels off. The "in and out parent" constantly redefines role and boundary definitions within the family structure and it becomes less clear to all family members "who is in and who is out of the family" (Gullota, 1981, p.154). Extensive or frequently fluctuating travel schedules keep family roles and boundaries in a state of continual chaos.

Seidenberg (1973) warns of the difficulties in executing quality parenting skills when father travels extensively. He says, that

among middle-and upper-class parents, overt abandonment is rare. Yet the well-to-do corporate executive may be as errant as his poorer brother. His business trips, always necessities, keep him from parenthood to almost the same point as does the poverty of the hapless ghetto deserter. Unimpeachable in his attention to the material well-being of his wife and children, he deserts them emotionally. How ironic it is that the ghetto father abandons his family because his is a financial failure and the corporate executive because of his success! (p.65)

It is important to realize, however, that the abandonment of the executive family and the abandonment of the ghetto family are perceived, both by society in general, and by the family members themselves, as two very different events. In the case of the poor family, the desertion is seen both inside and outside the family, as a final act. Not only is the father physically absent, but he

also has left the family without financial resources, a move that forces them to act independently in order to preserve their own existence. His desertion, in other words, liberates his abandoned family. Though the executive deserter is just as physically absent, his family perceives itself as being well cared for, and society shares the perception. The executive wife has no immediately apparent motive for declaring her independence and setting up separate life. Instead of liberating the family, the executive's abandonment entraps it.

Summary.

The concept of desertion evokes a strong negative image, and equally strong negative emotions, because it implies abandonment without any intention to return. Yet, emotional desertion is precisely what the literature characterizes as the corporate wife's experience, because of her husband's long work hours, frequent transfers, and extensive travel. Consistently, throughout the literature, we see that the message sent by the corporate man's allotment of his time and allegiance, is one that devalues the role of the wife and children, and elevates the corporation to a position of supremacy in the family.

Because the executive's real commitment to the corporation, like his mythical commitment to the family, is open-ended, the wife must contemplate a lifetime of physical and emotional disengagement from her husband as long as he remains a "corporation" man.

(Feldberg & Kohen, 1976, p. 152). In order to survive emotionally, the corporate wife must evaluate her role, not just in relation to her absent husband, but within the triangle formed by the corporation, her executive-husband and herself.

Her task, having recognized the corporation as a dominant partner in her marriage, will be to liberate herself from the role of the passive, oppressed partner, and to find ways of achieving independence, and greater fulfillment in her three-way marriage.

CHAPTER III

Research Design and Methodology

Problem Formulation

Through an extensive review of the literature, and the completion of thirty-seven Interview-Schedules, the researcher sought to discover whether the marital satisfaction and the personal satisfaction of the corporate wife, are affected by her husband's corporate employment lifestyle, and whether the marital satisfaction, and personal satisfaction, of the corporate wife, differs from wives in the general population.

Research Questions.

A number of "precise and testable (research) questions" (Goode & Hatt, 1962, p. 57) were extrapolated from the research instrument to develop methodology and design procedures. Research questions are listed below.

1. How does the corporate executive-husband's employment lifestyle affect his wife's marital satisfaction?
 - a. How satisfied, within the marital relationship, is the corporate wife, with the number of her husband's work hours, and the frequency of his traveling and transfers?

- b. Does the husband's long work hours, due to his loyalty to the company, as described in the literature, affect the social, and sexual, aspects of the marital relationship?
2. How does the corporate executive-husband's employment lifestyle affect the corporate wife's personal satisfaction?
 - a. Does the number of her executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his traveling and transfers, as stated in the literature, affect the corporate wife's satisfaction with her career selection and development, personal growth and identity, and the number of intimate friends and acquaintances in her life, at present?
 - b. Is the selection of the corporate wife's career role of homemaker, career person, student, or community/charity worker, shaped by her husband's long work hours, traveling, or transfers?
3. Are the marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career selection, of corporate wives, statistically and significantly different, from those of wives in the general population?

Hypotheses.

From the above questions, three hypotheses were formulated.

They are:

1. The number of the corporate executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, will correlate negatively with his wife's marital satisfaction.
2. The number of the corporate executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, will correlate negatively with his wife's personal satisfaction.
3. The marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career selection, of corporate wives, differs, significantly, from those of the wives in the general population.

The marital satisfaction of the wives, for both groups, will refer to their satisfaction with the following variables:

- (1) The amount of time that they spend with their husbands,
- (2) The frequency of their sexual activity with their husbands,
- (3) The quality of their sexual activity with their husbands,
- (4) The number of times that they have transferred, or relocated for their husbands' company,
- (5) The amount of time that their husbands travel for the company,
- (6) The number of hours that their husbands are away from

home for work or work-related social demands,

- (7) The amount of time that they spend alone.

These variables were chosen to represent marital satisfaction because they refer to the wife's relationship with her husband. Variables 1, 6, and 7 of marital satisfaction represent a "belongingness" factor (Minuchin, 1974), or a loneliness factor (Seidenberg, 1973). Variables 2 and 3 represent an intimacy factor (Feldberg & Kohen, 1976). Variables 4 and 5 represent a "corporate lifestyle" factor.

The personal satisfaction of the wives, for both groups, will refer to their satisfaction with the following variables:

- (1) Their individual career or occupational level at present,
- (2) The number of intimate friends in their life,
- (3) The number of acquaintances in their life,
- (4) Their personal growth or personal identity.

These variables were chosen to represent personal satisfaction because they refer to her personal relationships outside of the marriage (2 and 3), to her career development (Vandervelde, 1979), and personal growth and identity (1 and 4), and to her "separateness" (Minuchin, 1974) (1 and 4). A factor analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was attempted, but the sample size of 20 corporate wives, in Group One, and 17 wives from the general population, in Group Two, were too small, to avoid violating the assumptions about factor analysis. Comrey (1973) states that, factor analysis, derived from a "small sample,

are less likely to generalize to other samples, than factors derived from analysis of a larger sample. Comrey suggests the following guidelines: $N = 100$, poor; $N = 200$, fair; $N = 300$, good; $N = 500$, very good" (Comrey, 1973, p. 124). Since the sample size, for both Groups One and Two, was less than $N = 100$, a factor analysis was not performed.

The career selection of the wives, in both groups, will refer to four variables, which include the number of hours that the wives spent in the following activities:

- (1) Employment,
- (2) Household/housekeeping,
- (3) Educational or skill-enrichment,
- (4) Community or volunteer activities.

The career selection of the corporate wife relates to her marital satisfaction since the executive-husband's work hours, travel, and transfers, and the demands from the corporation, on his wife, to act as helpmate in her husband's career, may affect whether the corporate wife pursues a career as a homemaker, student, part-time or full-time employee, or volunteer worker. The career selection of the corporate wife relates to her personal satisfaction, since her satisfaction with the selection of her career measures, partially, her personal satisfaction.

Hypotheses testing will occur, for Hypothesis One and Two, by individually correlating the variables (from the corporate wife group) relating to the executive-husbands' number of work hours,

travel, and transfers, with each individual variable measuring marital and personal satisfaction, and by correlating the variables relating to the husbands' number of work hours, travel, and transfers, with summated or grouped scores on marital and personal satisfaction. The summated scores on marital and personal satisfaction will be calculated by grouping the 7 variables, referring to marital satisfaction, and by grouping the 4 variables, referring to personal satisfaction, respectively. The statistical method used to test correlations between variables will be Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient.

Hypotheses testing will occur, for Hypothesis Three, by testing the differences between the means (from both groups) of the summated marital satisfaction scores, the summated personal satisfaction scores, and the number of hours spent in employment activities, household/housekeeping activities, educational or skill-enrichment activities, and community or volunteer activities. The statistical method used to test the differences between the mean scores, for each group, will be the t-test.

Null Hypotheses.

Hypothesis testing begins by assuming that there is no relationship between variables. A Null Hypothesis is a statement, about two or more variables, which does not show a statistically significant relationship between the variables. The absence of statistical evidence to prove association between two variables,

beyond a .05, or 5%, probability that the association occurs by chance, allows acceptance of a null hypothesis (Selltitz, Jahoda, Deutsch, & Cook, 1960, pps. 415-418). "The opposing hypothesis, that a link exists, is acceptable only if the evidence is overwhelmingly in favour of it as against the null" (Erickson & Nosanchuk, 1977, p. 8).

In this research, there are three Null Hypotheses for each of the existing aforementioned hypotheses. They are:

1. There is no statistically significant relationship between the corporate wife's marital satisfaction and the number of her husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers.
2. There is no statistically significant relationship between the corporate wife's personal satisfaction and the number of her husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers.
3. The marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career selection, of corporate wives, does not differ, significantly, from those of the wives in the general population.

Statistical significance was determined by using an alpha level of five percent (.05) probability. A probability of .05 or less will be interpreted as indicating support of the hypotheses, while rejecting the null hypotheses (Selltitz, Jahoda, Deutsch, & Cook, 1960).

Operational Definition of Terms.

Corporate Wives-- women, twenty-one to sixty years of age, who are married to men employed by corporations, in middle to upper executive or management positions, with incomes in excess of \$35,000 per year (at time data was collected).

Corporate Executive-Husbands-- the men who are married to corporate wives.

Husband's Corporate Employment Lifestyle-- long work hours, executive travel, corporate transfers.

Work Hours-- hours spent in employment per day.

Executive Travel-- a journey, for the purpose of business, to a place outside of the city, or place, in which the executive lives.

Corporate Transfers-- a job change within the corporate structure that requires the employee to move residentially from one company branch location to another (Margolis, 1976).

Career-- a profession, or employment, for which one trains, and which is undertaken as permanent employment.

Homemaker-- one who manages a household, especially as a wife and mother.

Career Person-- an individual who is employed outside the home.

Student-- one who attends a school, or enrolls in courses.

Community-- a unified body of individuals; society at large.

Volunteer-- one who volunteers, usually for a non-profit organization.

Charity-- benevolent goodwill toward, or love of humanity.

Marital-- of or relating to marriage or the married state.

Personal-- of, relating to, or affecting a person.

Satisfaction-- fulfillment of a need or want.

Significantly-- probability that differences in the satisfaction scores between both corporate wife and general population groups can occur by chance only 5 percent of the time (.05 level of statistical significance).

Wives in the general population-- women, ages 25-60, who are married to men employed in positions or professions, with an income in excess of \$35,000 per year (at time data was collected), by groups or organizations of a non-corporate type.

Variables.

The dependent variables, in this research, are the wives' marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career roles. The independent variables, in this research, are the husbands' work hours, travel, and transfers.

Rather than measuring variables of depression, marital adjustment, or personal adjustment, using standardized psychological instruments, wives' perceptions of satisfaction/dissatisfaction were measured instead, because social work practitioners often diagnose and treat problems, based on

client-perceptions.

Classification of Research.

This study may be classified as being quantitative-descriptive since it satisfies the three conditions of such studies. First, it is concerned with describing the characteristics of the corporate wife and general population groups in this study: their age, health, education, and husbands' income distributions, employment status, and daily activities. These items comprise demographic data. Secondly, this study aspires to discern, from the respondents, their marital, and personal satisfaction. Thirdly, it is concerned with inferring associations, between the variables relating to the husband's corporate employment, and the corporate wife's perception of her marital and personal satisfaction.

The quantitative-descriptive classification, for this research, may also be appropriate because, although a control group was used for comparison, an experiment was not conducted on the corporate wife group, and, the general population group was not used for control purposes. Also, the independent variables, relating to the husband's employment, were not manipulated. Tripodi, Fellin, and Meyer (1969) explain that

the category of quantitative-descriptive studies is similar to that of experimental studies in that both seek quantitative-descriptions among specified variables.

Quantitative-descriptions are obtained through the use of

measuring devices to describe relationships among variables; hence, statistical concepts such as correlation, proportions, and so forth are employed....Quantitative-descriptive studies differ from experimental studies in that they do not employ the experimental manipulation of independent variables.

(p. 23)

The formulation of the descriptive study differs, from the flexibility of exploratory study, and the causal nature of the experimental study. The descriptive study requires procedural planning. Objective formulation, and measurement methods, must be precise. Care in protecting against bias, in sampling, and data collection and analysis, is crucial (Sellitz, Wrightsman & Cook, 1976, p. 102).

Population and Sample.

The samples for this study included 20 corporate wives and 17 women from the general population who shared similar demographic characteristics such as age, education, and income. Because it has been stated, in the literature, that the work hours, travel, and transfer requirements, of executive-husbands, have destructive effects on the marital and personal satisfaction of corporate wives (Packard, 1962; Seidenberg, 1973), a sample of wives from the general population was selected, to compare similarities and differences, in marital and personal satisfaction, with those of corporate wives.

Random selection into corporate wife and control groups was not possible. After some investigation into the possibility of obtaining a random sample from corporations, the researcher discovered that all the corporation representatives, who were contacted, refused to disclose the names of their employees and their wives. The researcher then attempted to obtain a list of names of corporate wives from churches, in geographical areas where it was suspected that a high percentage of 'corporate wives' lived. A number of church ministers were helpful, but the lists of names were so small that randomization from these lists was not necessary. Other sample members were obtained from several mental health practitioners, but randomization, again, was not necessary, because of small sample size. The researcher also obtained sample members by referrals from women, willing to participate in the study, who knew other corporate wives. The sample for this study, therefore, was obtained by an accidental sampling procedure.

In their book Research Methods in Social Relations, Selltitz, Wrightsman and Cook (1976) include "accidental sampling" as a viable sampling procedure of nonprobability sampling types. They list the advantages of accidental sampling as being convenience and economy, while the disadvantages include misrepresentation of the population being researched, and possible bias (p. 517).

The samples for each group in this study were intended to be small because interviews were conducted, face-to-face, and were very time consuming. The respondents were interviewed in their

homes, with the exception of three who were interviewed in their offices at work, and one who was interviewed in a public library, for purposes of confidentiality.

Instrumentation

Method of Data Collection.

Data was collected by means of a ten page Interview-Schedule that was administered, face-to-face, for each of the thirty-seven participants in this research. Part I of the Schedule consisted of a cover, and 10 pages which listed 89 questions (see Appendix A), and Part II consisted of 12 open-ended questions (see Appendix B). The cover page of the Interview-Schedule instructed each respondent to respond to all of the questions in Part I, with a single response for each item, and explained that Part II would involve a discussion between the respondent and the interviewer. The cover page also explained that all information collected in this research would remain confidential, to protect the privacy of the respondent.

An alternative to the interview method of data collection, used in this research, might have been the use of Interview-Schedules mailed to the sample members. Mailing Interview-Schedules could have provided a larger sample, and quite possibly, increased honest expression in responses, because the sample members would not only have been protected by a promise of confidentiality, but also by anonymity. However, because this

research has been prepared for the social work profession, whose general method of procedure, for diagnosis and treatment, is through face-to-face interviews, the method of mailing Interview-Schedules was abandoned, in favor of the face-to-face interview method. Additionally, Part II, comprising open-ended questions, required a face-to-face format, to facilitate detailed responses, and to facilitate the detailing of the respondent's thoughts and feelings, during responses to emotionally charged questions.

The 12-question, open-ended section increased the internal reliability of the instrument because it "add(ed) measurement operations of the same type as the ones with which we started" (Selltitz, Jahoda, Deutsch & Cook, 1960, p. 182). In other words, several of the questions in Part II were repeated from Part I, in different form.

The Interview-Schedule.

Questions 1-89 comprised Part I of this instrument. Questions 1-13 of the Interview-Schedule related to demographic data, such as the age of the wife and the husband, marital length, children, health, geographical origin, and family of origin. Questions on health, in Part I, provided respondents with a structured scale, by which to rate their health as excellent, satisfactory, or unsatisfactory.

Through the use of a six-point structured scale, Questions

14-24 related to the hours per day that the respondents, and their respective husbands, spent in activities regarding employment, time with friends, time completely alone, household/housekeeping activities, child-care activities, conversation/recreation, and education or skill-enrichment. The scale was structured, to include categories, from "less than 1, to 2 hours per day" (i.e. less than 3 full hours), to "over 14 hours per day".

A six-point structured scale was used, for Questions 25-29, to respond to the hours per week that the respondent, and her husband, spent in activities relating to recreational time together, apart, or in community or volunteer activities. The scale was structured, to include categories, from "less than 1, to 3 hours per week" (i.e. less than 4 full hours), to "over 25 hours per week".

Question 30 inquired into the respondent's sexual activity, through the use of a six-point scale. This question was the only one for which an optional response was acceptable, due to the sensitivity of the subject matter. The scale for this question was structured, to include categories, from "less than once per month" to "more than once daily".

Questions 31-33 asked respondents to respond to residency questions, by write-in numerical responses.

Questions 34-35 inquired into the respondent's, and her respective husband's, education. A six-point scale was structured, to include categories, from "less than high school graduate" to "post Master's, Ph.D., M.D., L.L.D.", to facilitate a full range of

responses.

Questions 36-37 asked the respondent to identify her career category, and that of her husband.

Question 38 sought data on the husband's management level with a four-point scale, structured, to include categories, from "lower-level management" to "upper-level management".

Questions 39-43 asked the respondent to write-in responses regarding her husband's career.

Questions 44-45 sought data on the respondent's income, and that of her husband's. A six-point scale was structured, to include categories, from "under \$25,000 per year" to "over \$150,000 per year".

Question 46 sought data on the husband's travel. A six-point scale was structured, to include categories, from "does not travel at all" to "travels over 6 months per year". Question 47 asked whether the respondent goes with her husband when he travels, and a five-point scale was structured, to include categories, from "never" to "always".

Questions 48-59 sought data on the respondent's perception of how her husband's company affects: "the way I dress", "my public behavior", "the friends I select", "the people with whom my husband and I socialize", "the problems I have", "the home I live in", "the community/neighborhood I live in", "whether or not I work outside the home", "my occupation", "my daily activity priorities", "the amount of time I am able to spend with my husband", and "the

amount/frequency of my community involvement". To facilitate responses for Questions 48-59, a five-point scale was structured, to include categories, from "not at all" to "always". Questions 48-59, collectively, represent a scale of "Corporate Wife Behavior".

Question 60 asked the respondent to rank, from a five-point scale, to include categories, from "most important", to "least important", her husband's career, her identity, her home, her career, social activities, and her husband/children.

Questions 61-72 asked the respondent whether her personal relationships with family and friends, her career, or that of her husband's, her time alone, and her financial situation, were stressful, or supportive.

Questions 73-89 sought data on marital and personal satisfaction. The respondent was asked to select a response, from a five-point scale, that was structured, to include categories, from "very dissatisfied" to "very satisfied". Questions 77 ("amount of time I spend with my husband"), 80 ("frequency of sexual activity with my husband"), 81 ("quality of sexual activity with my husband"), 82 ("number of times my family and I have transferred/relocated for husband's company"), 85 ("amount of time husband travels for his company"), and 86 ("number of hours husband is away from home for work or social demands"), refer to marital satisfaction. Questions 73 ("my career/occupational level at present"), 74 ("number of intimate friends in my life"), 75

("number of acquaintances in my life"), 88 ("amount of time I spend alone"), and 89 ("my personal growth/personal identity"), refer to personal satisfaction. Personal satisfaction and marital satisfaction scales were devised, for analysis, by grouping individual variables relating to marital or personal satisfaction in summated form, as in a "Likert-type" scale (Selltitz, Jahoda, Deutsch, & Cook, 1960, p. 366).

With exception to Questions 11, 30, 34, 35, and 60, each question that used a structured scale included a category of "not-applicable" or "not at all", to ensure all possible responses.

Part II of this instrument included 12 open-ended questions, regarding the respondent's perceptions of the life-stresses and problems including, depression, suicide, separation, divorce, physical violence, marital infidelity, and drug abuse. Part II also asked respondents what they would change about their lives, and to relate their experience, if any, in seeking professional help.

Method of Data Analysis

For purposes of descriptive statistical analysis, frequency distributions, the mean, and standard deviations, will be calculated for demographical data, for both the corporate wife and for the general population groups. Demographical data, in this research, includes information regarding age, marriage, children, career, residency, education, employment, income, executive travel,

transfers, and sexual activity. Demographic data will also include the number of hours, per day or week, that participant's spent in daily activities regarding employment, social and recreational pursuits, household tasks, and education or skill-enrichment.

For purposes of inferential statistical analysis, Pearson's product-moment correlation will be used, for Hypotheses One and Two, to show associations between demographic and "satisfaction" variables. The t-test will be used, for Hypothesis Three, to determine the differences between means of summated marital and personal satisfaction scores, and career selection scores, for corporate wife and control groups.

Multiple regression was considered an ideal statistic to show inter-relationships among quantitative variables. However, multiple regression was not used because the samples of both groups were small, and certain assumptions about this statistic could not be violated. "In multivariate research...the number of subjects should be ten times the number of variables. For samples of 400 or more subjects, however, the item parameters tend to be relatively stable, so the addition of subjects becomes less crucial" (Kass & Tinsley, 1979, p. 293).

Statistical Analysis System (SAS) (Helwig, 1978) was used for statistical procedures. The analyses were performed at the Computer Centre, University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario, Canada, during September, October, and November, 1985.

Limitations of the Design

(1) Because a random sample could not be obtained from the corporate wife population, the non-random sampling procedure used for this research will preclude the generalization of findings and results, to the corporate wife population. Non-randomization of sampling procedures may critically affect the differences between groups. The results of this study are limited to the accessible sample members in the corporate wife and general populations. Additionally, the process by which respondents referred other respondents may have biased the sample, because sample members may have referred persons whom they perceived as feeling most like themselves, in regards to their own satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the corporate lifestyle.

(2) Missing values reduced the sample-size for some variables. Because of the way that the computer was programmed, a response of "not-applicable", became coded, by the computer, as a missing value. Additionally, missing values reduce the sample size when even one response to a variable, is missing. Therefore, one missing response, to a variable, voids all of a sample member's other responses, and the missing response becomes a missing value. The process of re-programming the computer, as an answer to eliminating the problem of missing values, was not possible.

(3) The Interview-Schedule was devised from the researcher's exploration of the literature and has not been previously tested. Vandervelde's (1979) study on corporate wives contributed to the

organization of data on the Interview-Schedule.

(4) Some respondents who agreed to be interviewed, may have biased the results of this study, if they had prior information of the content of the Interview-Schedule. This research may have been biased, further, because two potential respondents, who originally agreed to be interviewed, refused to co-operate, once they were informed of the content of the Interview-Schedule. One person explained that by answering the open-ended questions, some suppressed feelings that were too painful to relive, regarding her marriage, might resurface if she participated in this research. The other person, who refused to be interviewed, was still attempting to resolve her son's suicide, and she felt that the emotional expression required of her, in this research, would be too difficult for her to handle.

CHAPTER IV

Research Analysis

Introduction

The analysis of the data for this thesis will be presented in five sections. The First Section will provide univariate analysis of demographic data using percentages, frequency distributions; means and standard deviations for both corporate wife and general population samples. The Second Section will present univariate analysis using frequency distributions of the open-ended questions. Both Section 1 and Section 2 will provide sample descriptions for the corporate wife group, which will be referred to as Group One, and the group from the general population, which will be referred to as Group Two. The Third section will begin the analyses of the hypotheses. Section 3 will describe relationships between the demographic variables and marital satisfaction scores, in support of Hypothesis One, which states that the number of the corporate executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, correlate negatively with his wife's marital satisfaction. The Fourth Section will describe relationships between demographic variables and personal satisfaction scores, in support of Hypothesis Two, which states that the work hours of the corporate executive-husband, and the frequency of his travel and

transfers, correlate negatively with his wife's personal satisfaction. In support of Hypothesis Three, the Fifth Section will present a comparison between the mean² average score for marital and personal satisfaction, for both groups, and a comparison between the mean average score of the variables determining career selection, for both groups. Hypothesis Three states that the marital and personal satisfaction, as well as the career selection of corporate wives, differs significantly from those of wives in the general population.

Description of Demographic Data

The purpose of gathering demographic data was to provide a description of the samples for both Group One and Group Two. (See Appendix A).

The purpose of comparing the corporate wife sample with a sample from the general population, was to determine, whether or not corporate wives differ, in their marital and personal satisfaction, and their career selection, from wives in the general population.

Age of Wife.

The first comparison between wives begins with a look at the differences between the ages of the wives (Table I). From a sample of 20 corporate wives, the mean age of the Group One wife is 37, with a standard deviation of 4.3. The ages of Group One wives

ranged from 28 years old to 46 years old. Thirteen (65%) of the corporate wives were under 40 years of age, while seven (35%) of the corporate wives were over 40 years of age. From a sample of 17 wives from the general population, the mean age of Group Two wives is 33, with a standard deviation of 6.4. The ages of Group Two wives ranged from 26 years to 54 years. Sixteen (94%) of the wives, in Group Two, were under 40 years of age. One (6%) was over 40 years of age. The distribution of ages in the general population sample appear greater than in the corporate wife sample, but Group Two is a younger group since the median and mode of the ages of wives in the general population is 31 years. The median and mode of the ages for corporate wives, in Group One, is 37 years. Statistically significant differences were found in relation to the wife's age through t -test procedures ($t = 2.4$, $p = .01$, $p < .05$). Table 1 illustrates the age of the wives.

In this study, a relatively young sample of respondents, in both groups, were sought for analysis and comparison, because this study is primarily concerned with women, in the "third generation" of corporate wives (Fortune, August, 1984). The editors of Fortune (August, 1984), delineate three generations of corporate wives. The first generation includes those women, over 50 years of age, who have adhered to the "corporate wife" stereotype, by accepting their roles of homemaker and helpmate to their husbands. The second generation of wives are 35 to 50 years of age. These women are expected, by the corporation

to behave as first generation wives. They are also expected, by society, to "do something on their own." Second generation wives potentially feel the most ambivalence about their role as a corporate wife. The wives of the third generation, who are in their twenties and early-to-middle thirties, grew up with the expectation of pursuing a career of their own. The women in this group, who may have temporarily abandoned their careers in favor of motherhood, feel that the corporation has no right to expect anything of them (Fortune, August, 1984). Since corporate wives, in the third generation, may have greater career expectations, than have wives in the first and second generations, these younger wives may be particularly affected by transfers, and the responsibilities of sole child-care due to their husbands' frequent absences.

Age of Executive-Husband.

The ages of the husbands were also considered for comparison. In Group One, the mean age of the husband was 40 years, with a standard deviation of 6.8, a median age of 38.5 years, and a mode was 35 years. In Group Two, the mean age of the husband was 35 years, with a standard deviation of 6.4, a median age of 34 years, and a mode of 31 years. The husband of the corporate wife, in Group One, is older than the husband of the wife from the general population, in Group Two. Statistically significant differences were also found in relation to the husband's age through t-test procedures ($t = 2.1$, $p = .04$, $p < .05$) (See Table 2).

TABLE 1

Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Age

Age:	<u>Group One</u>			<u>Group Two</u>		
	N	Range	Percent	N	Range	Percent
under 40	13	28-39	65%	16	26-39	94.1%
over 40	7	40-46	35%	1	54	5.9%
Total sample	20	28-46	100%	17	26-54	100%
	mean = 37			mean = 33		
	SD = 4.3			SD = 6.4		
	median = 37			median = 31		
	mode = 35			mode = 31		

 $t = 2.4$ $p = 0.01$ $p \leq .05$ $df = 35$

TABLE 2
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Husband's Age

	<u>Group One</u>			<u>Group Two</u>		
Age:	N	Range	Percent	N	Range	Percent
under 40	11	29-39	55%	14	26-38	82.3%
over 40	9	40-50	45%	3	40-55	17.7%
Total sample	20	29-50	100%	17	26-55	100%
mean = 40			mean = 35			
SD = 6.8			SD = 6.4			
median = 38.5			median = 34			
mode = 31			mode = 31			

$t = 2.1$

$p = 0.04$

$p \leq .05$

$df = 35$

Number of Years Married.

The number of years that the wives have been married was considered for evaluation, as seen in Table 3. The number of years that corporate wives in Group One were married ranged from 2 to 24 years. The mean number of years married for this group was 11.9 with a standard deviation of 6.6, and a median of 13.5 years. The number of years that the wives from the general population, in Group Two, were married, ranged from 3 to 34 years. The mean number of years married for this group was 9.0 with a standard deviation of 7.6, with a median of 6 years. Because standard deviations for both groups are large, the median seems to represent the truer measure of dispersion in the category of number of years married, and it is apparent that corporate wives in Group One were married longer than wives in Group Two. However, no statistically significant difference existed between both group's number of years married ($t = 1.2$, $p = .23$, $p > .05$).

Number of Children at Home.

The number of children at home was considered for comparison. Chart One illustrates that three (15%) of the corporate wives in Group One had no children; three (15%) had 1 child; seven (35%) had 2 children; five (25%) had 3 children; one (5%) had 4 children; and one (5%) had 5 children. The mean number of children in Group One was 2.05 with a standard deviation of 1.31. In Group Two, four (23.5%) of the wives in the general

population had no children; five (29.4%) had 1 child; four (23.5%) had 2 children; three (17.5%) had 3 children; and one (5.9%) had 5 children. The mean number of children in Group Two was 1.58, with a standard deviation of 1.37.

Educational Level.

The educational level of corporate wives and wives from the general population was compared to ensure similarity between the two groups. In Group One, fifteen corporate wives (75%) either attended college without graduating or graduated from college, and four (20%) attended graduate school. In Group Two, ten wives from the general population (58.8%) either attended college without graduating or graduated from college, and six (35.3%) attended graduate school. It appears that the educational level of both groups are similar. No statistically significant difference existed between the mean educational level of Group One and Group Two ($t = 3.7$, $p = 0.52$, $p > .05$) (See Table 4).

Wife's Career Activities.

The number of hours that the corporate wife spends in various daily activities was considered, for analysis, in an effort to reflect how her day is spent, and to examine the nature of her daily activities.

The career activities of the corporate wife include employment activities, household/housekeeping activities, educational or

TABLE 3

Comparison of Demographic
Variable of Number of Years Married

Years Married	<u>Group One</u>			<u>Group Two</u>		
	N	Range	Percent	N	Range	Percent
Totals	20	2-24	100%	17	3-34	100%
	mean = 11.9			mean = 9.0		
	SD = 6.6			SD = 7.6		
	median = 13.5			median = 6		
	mode = 4			mode = 3		

$t = 1.2$

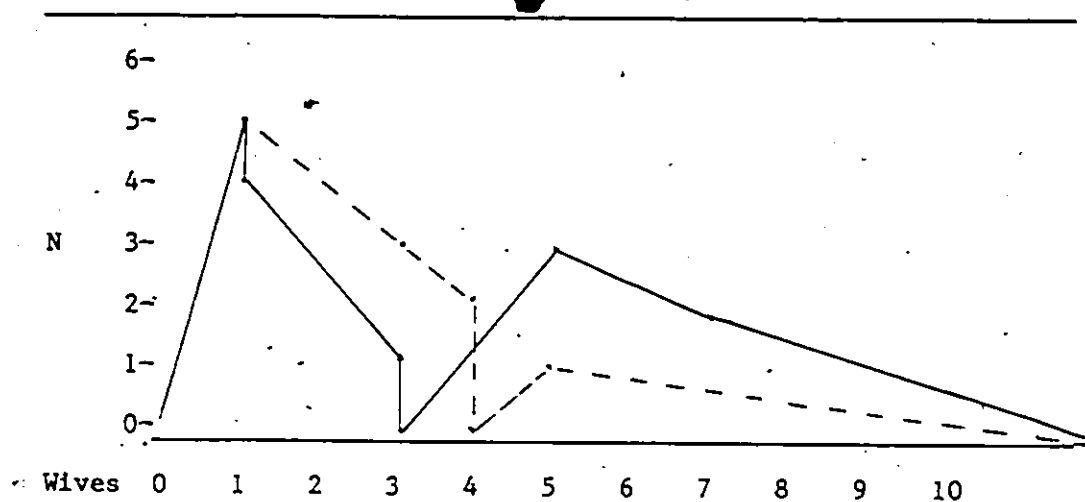
$p = 0.23$

$p \geq .05$

$df = 35$

CHART ONE

Comparison of Number of Children at Home

Group One = _____

N = 20

mean = 2.05

SD = 1.31

Group Two = _____

N = 17

mean = 1.58

SD = 1.37

TABLE 4
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Education

Education	Group One		Group Two	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
High school graduate	1	5%	1	5.9%
Some college	7	35%	5	29.4%
College graduate	8	40%	5	29.4%
Post graduate/Master's	4	20%	6	35.3%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 3.75		mean = 3.94	
	SD = 0.85		SD = 0.96	

$$t = 3.7$$

$$p = 0.52$$

$$p > .05).$$

$$df = 35$$

skill-enrichment activities, and community or volunteer activities. These variables were important in determining the statistical significance of Hypothesis Three, which concerns differences, if any, in the career selection between corporate wives and wives in the general population. If her husband's corporate employment-lifestyle critically affects the career development of the corporate wife, as is stated in the literature (Berkwith, 1972; Weissman & Paykel, 1972; Seidenberg, 1973; Vandervelde, 1979), then statistically significant differences, presumably, will occur between the means in the corporate wife group and general population group for the four variables that refer to the career selection of the corporate wife.

A distribution of the employment activities of the corporate wife shows that nine (45%) in Group One, are full-time homemakers (that are not employed outside the home), and eleven (55%) are employed either part-time (less than 6 hours per day), or full-time (more than 6 hours per day). A distribution of the employment activities of the wife in the general population shows that six (35.3%) in Group Two, are full-time homemakers, and eleven (64.7%) are employed part-time or full-time. However, more members in Group Two ($N = 9$) were employed full-time, than were members in Group One ($N = 5$). No significant difference was found in relation to the number of hours spent in employment activities between Group One and Group Two ($t = -0.91$, $p = 0.36$, $p > .05$) (See Table 5).

A comparison of the number of hours that wives spend in household/housekeeping activities shows that corporate wives (Group One) most frequently spent "3 to 6 hours" in household/housekeeping activities (N = 13, 65%) while wives in Group Two almost equally spent either "less than 1, to 2 hours" (N = 7, 41.2%), or "3 to 6 hours" (N = 8, 47.0%), in household/housekeeping activities. It is possible that, because a larger number of wives in Group Two work full-time, they are able to devote less time to household activities. No statistically significant difference was found in relation to the number of hours spent in household/housekeeping activities between Group One and Group Two ($t = 0.83$, $p = 0.40$, $p > .05$) (See Table 6).

A comparison of the number of hours that wives spend in educational or skill-enrichment activities shows that, in Group One, fourteen corporate wives (70%) were involved in educational activities, while ten wives in Group Two (58%) were involved in educational activities. Although wives in Group One were involved in educational activities more than wives in Group Two, by a 12% margin, no statistically significant difference was found in relation to the number of hours spent in educational or skill-enrichment activities between Group One and Group Two ($t = 0.83$, $p = 0.40$, $p > .05$) (See Table 7).

Table 8 shows a comparison of the number of hours that wives spent in volunteer or community activities. In Group One, seventeen corporate wives (85%) were involved in volunteer or community activities, while only eight wives (46.3%), in Group Two,

TABLE 5
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Number
of Hours in Employment Activities

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Full-Time Homemaker: (0 hours--not employed outside the home)	9	45%	6	35.3%
Part-Time Worker: (less than 6 hours)	6	30%	2	11.8%
Full-Time Worker: (more than 6 hours)	5	25%	9	52.9%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 1.35		mean = 1.76	
	SD = 1.30		SD = 1.43	

$t = -0.91$

$p = 0.36$

$p > .05$

$df = 35$

TABLE 6
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Number
of Hours in Housekeeping/Household Activities.

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
less than 1 to 2	5	25%	7	41.2%
3 to 6	13	65%	8	47.0%
7 to 10	1	5%	2	11.8%
11 to 14	1	5%	0	0.00
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 1.90		mean = 1.70	
	SD = 0.71		SD = 0.68	

$t = 0.83$

$p = 0.40$

$p > 0.05$

$df = 35$

TABLE 7
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Number
of Hours in Educational or Skill-Enrichment Activities

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
0 hours (no involvement)	6	30%	7	41.2%
less than 1 to 2 hours	10	50%	8	47.0%
3 to 6 hours	4	20%	2	11.8%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 0.90		mean = 0.70	
	SD = 0.71		SD = 0.68	

$t = 0.83$

$p = 0.40$

$p > 0.05$

$df = 35$

TABLE 8
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Number
of Hours in Volunteer or Community Activities

Hours Per Week	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
0 hours (No involvement)	3	15%	9	52.9%
less than 1 to 3 hours	9	45%	2	11.8%
4 to 8 hours	4	20%	6	35.3%
9 to 15 hours	3	15%	0	0.00
16 to 25 hours	1	5%	0	0.00
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 1.5		mean = 0.82	
	SD = 1.1		SD = 0.95	

$\underline{t} = 0.005$

$\underline{p} = 0.05$

$\underline{p} \leq 0.05$

$df = 34$

were involved in volunteer or community activities. A statistically significant difference was found between the mean averages of Group One and Group Two ($t = 0.005$, $p = 0.05$, $p^* \leq .05$). The findings for this variable are consistent with the literature which shows that corporate wives frequently are involved in volunteer or community activities because their career or educational pursuits have been interrupted by transfers (Vandervelde, 1979).

Social Relationships.

The next variables considered for comparison were the number of hours that corporate wives spend with friends and acquaintances. These variables were considered important because the literature states that transfers force the corporate wife to abandon her friendships in the city or town from which she moved, and attempt to make new friends in her new place of residence, which may be a difficult task (Seidenberg, 1973; Vandervelde, 1979). Because the corporate wife may have been uprooted more frequently than the wife in the general population, a significant difference, presumably, will be found between the number of hours that the corporate wife spends with friends, and the number of hours that the wife in the general population spends with friends.

Table 9 shows a comparison between both groups' number of hours per day spent with friends. In Group One, corporate wives most frequently spent less than 3 hours per day ($N = 16$, 80%) with friends. Wives in Group Two most frequently spent less than 3

hours per day ($N = 14$, 82.3%) with friends. No statistically significant difference was found between the two groups ($t = 0.07$, $p = 0.93$, $p > .05$).

Table 10 compares both groups' hours per week in recreation without their husbands. In Group One, twelve corporate wives (60%) spent more than four hours per week in recreation without their husbands, while eight wives (47.1%) in Group Two, spent more than 4 hours per week in recreation without their husbands. Although t-test procedures were not performed for this variable, and there appears to be little difference between the means for Group One (1.6), and Group Two (1.7), corporate wives spent more time in recreation without their husbands than did wives in the general population, by a 12.9% margin. The findings for this variable are consistent with Seidenberg's (1973) focus on the lonely condition of the corporate wife.

Relationship with Husband.

The first variable, considered under the heading of "Relationship with Husband", was the wife's number of hours per day spent in conversation/recreation with her husband. In Group One, corporate wives most frequently spent less than 3 hours per day ($N = 13$, 65%) in conversation or recreation with their husbands. Likewise, in Group Two, wives most frequently spent less than 3 hours per day ($N = 12$, 70%) in conversation or recreation with their husbands. Table 11 shows no statistically significant

TABLE 9
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Number
of Hours With Friends/Acquaintances

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
0 (not-applicable)	0	0.00	1	5.9%
less than 1 to 2 hours	16	80%	14	82.3%
3 to 6 hours	4	20%	1	5.9%
7 to 10 hours	0	0.00	1	5.9%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 1.2		mean = 1.18	
	SD = 0.41		SD = 0.54	

$t = 0.07$

$p = 0.93$

$p > 0.05$

$df = 34$

TABLE 10
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Number
of Hours in Recreation Without Husband

Hours Per Week	Group One		Group Two	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
0 hours (not-applicable)	2	10%	0	00.00
less than 1 to 3 hours	6	30%	9	52.9%
4 to 8 hours	11	55%	4	23.5%
9 to 15 hours	1	5%	3	17.7%
16 to 25 hours	0	0.00	1	5.9%
-Totals	20	100%	17	100%

mean = 1.6

mean = 1.76

SD = 0.88

SD = 0.97

mode = 2

mode = 1

difference between Group One and Group Two ($t = -0.70$, $p = 0.47$, $p > .05$).

The second variable considered was the wife's number of hours per week spent in recreation with her husband. In Group One, corporate wives most frequently spent "4 to 8 hours" per week ($N = 12$, 60%) in recreation with their husbands. Wives in Group Two also most frequently spent "4 to 8 hours" per week ($N = 8$, 47.0%) in recreation with their husbands. No statistically significant difference was found between group means ($t = -1.86$, $p = 0.07$, $p > .05$). However, only three wives in Group One (15%) spent "9 to 15 hours" per week with their husbands, while six wives in Group Two (35.3%) spent "9 to 15 hours" per week with their husbands. Wives in Group Two seem to spend more hours per week in recreation with their husbands than wives in Group One (See Table 12). Perhaps corporate wives spend less time in recreation with their husbands because they are truly more "lonely" as Seidenberg (1973) suggests, or because their executive-husbands are so preoccupied with their work that they spend less time in leisure or recreation with their wives (Pahl & Pahl, 1971).

The frequency of the wife's sexual activity with her husband is the third demographic variable that refers to the wife's relationship with her husband. Although no statistically significant difference was found between group means ($t = 1.62$, $p = 0.11$, $p > .05$) fourteen corporate wives (70%), in Group One, engaged in sexual activity with their husbands at least once per

week, whereas only seven wives, in Group Two (41.2%), engaged in sexual activity with their husbands at least once per week (See Table 13). This observation conflicts with the findings in the literature which state that the sex life of corporate executives and their wives is neglected (Packard, 1962), and that executives are so preoccupied with their work that they have little time for sexual activity with their wives (Barnett, 1968).

The next variable, considered under the heading of "Relationship with Husband", was the number of hours per day that the corporate wife spends completely alone. Since it is not known whether sample participants responded to their time "completely alone" by excluding only their husbands, or by excluding their husbands and children, this item has been included under the heading "Relationship with Husband" since this variable may reflect the wife's perception of her time "completely alone" as excluding only her husband. In Group One, eleven corporate wives (55%) spent more than 3 hours per day completely alone, whereas eight wives, in Group Two (47.1%), spent more than 3 hours per day completely alone. Although corporate wives may appear to spend more time alone than do wives in the general population, three wives in Group Two (17.7%) spent more than 7 hours alone per day, while no wives in Group One spent more than 7 hours per day completely alone. The difficulty in analyzing this variable is that "completely alone" may have been interpreted differently by the research respondents in either one or both groups. Since no statistically significant

TABLE 11
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Number
of Hours in Conversation/Recreation with Husband

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
0 hours	1	5%	0	0.00
less than 1 to 2 hours	13	65%	12	70.6%
3 to 6 hours	6	30%	4	23.5%
7 to 10 hours	0	0.00	1	5.9%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 1.25		mean = 1.41	
	SD = 0.55		SD = 0.79	

$t = -0.70$

$p = 0.47$

$p > 0.05$

$df = 35$

TABLE 12
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's Number
of Hours in Recreation With Husband

Hours Per Week	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
less than 1 to 3 hours	4	20%	1	5.9%
4 to 8 hours	12	60%	8	47.0%
9 to 15 hours	3	15%	6	35.3%
16 to 25 hours	1	5%	2	11.8%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 2.05		mean = 2.52	
	SD = 0.75		SD = 0.79	

$t = -1.86$

$p = 0.70$

$p > 0.05$

$df = 35$

TABLE 13
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Frequency of
Wife's Sexual Activity With Husband

Frequency	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
less than once per month	2	10%	2	11.8%
1 to 3 times per month	4	20%	8	47.0%
once per week	6	30%	4	23.5%
several times per week	8	40%	3	17.7%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
		mean = 3.0	mean = 2.47	
		SD = 1.02	SD = 0.94	

$t = 1.62$

$p = 0.11$

$p > 0.05$

$df = 35$

TABLE 14
 Comparison of Demographic Variable of Wife's
 Number of Hours Completely Alone

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
0 (no hours alone)	1	5%	1	5.9%
less than 1 to 2 hours	8	40%	8	47.0%
3 to 6 hours	11	55%	5	29.4%
7 to 10 hours	0	0.00	2	11.8%
11 to 14 hours	0	0.00	1	5.9%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
		mean = 1.50	mean = 1.64	
		SD = 0.60	SD = 0.99	

$t = -0.53$

$p = 0.60$

$p > 0.50$

$df = 25.5$

difference was found between group means ($t = -0.53$, $p = 0.60$, $p > .05$), the analysis of this particular variable does not support the "loneliness of the Corporate Wife" theory, as discussed, by Seidenberg (1973), in the literature. Also, it is difficult to determine whether the alleged loneliness of corporate wives derives from time spent completely alone, or from lack of time with their husbands (See Table 14).

Executive-Husband's Corporate Lifestyle.

The first area of consideration, in examining the executive-husband's corporate lifestyle, is his number of hours that he devotes to work. The literature states that the executive must work long hours to ascend in the corporate hierarchy (Whyte, 1956; Packard, 1962; Margolis, 1979), and because of his loyalty to the corporation, he is able to spend little time with his family (Seidenberg, 1973), which, in turn, increases his wife's loneliness (Seidenberg, 1973; Applebaum, 1978). The second area of consideration is the number of times that the executive-husband travels for his company. Travel is said to be an important component of corporate life, but it is reputed to have detrimental effects on family cohesion (Howes, 1970). The third area of consideration is the number of times that the corporate family has been transferred. The willingness of an executive, to accept a transfer, is often a strong barometer of the executive's promotability within the company (Packard, 1962; Seidenberg, 1973;

Margolis, 1976). However, transfers generate a high degree of stress for the corporate wife (Weissman & Paykel, 1972) because moves often force the wife to leave behind family and friends (Seidenberg, 1973), disrupt her career development (Vandervelde, 1979), and cause depression in the corporate wife (Berkwith, 1972; Weissman & Paykel, 1972), and in her children (Seidenberg, 1973).

A comparison of the income levels of the wives' husbands is also included in this section to show similarity between the two groups. Income was controlled for in selecting research respondents.

A comparison was made between the number of hours per day that corporate executive-husbands, of wives in Group One, were away from home for work or work-related social affairs, and the number of hours that the husbands, of wives in Group Two, were away from home, for the same reasons. Husbands of wives, in Group One ($N = 11$, 65%) were, most frequently, away from home for 11 to 14 hours per day, while husbands of wives, in Group Two ($N = 8$, 47.0%) were, most frequently, away from home for 7 to 10 hours per day. However seven (41.2%) of the husbands, in Group Two, were also away from home for 11 to 14 hours per day. No statistically significant difference was found between the group means ($t = 1.06$, $p = 0.29$, $p > .05$) (See Table 15). Apparently, the husbands of the corporate wives, in Group One, worked long hours, but not statistically significantly longer, than the husbands of wives in the general population, as represented by Group Two.

The next area of comparison concerned husband's travel. Husbands, of wives in Group One, most frequently traveled 5 to 11 weeks per year ($N = 10$, 50%), while husbands of wives, in Group Two, most frequently did not travel at all ($N = 9$, 52.9%). Husbands, of wives in Group One, apparently travel more than husbands of wives, in Group Two. Through the t-test procedure, a statistically significant difference was found to exist between the mean averages of Group One and Group Two ($t = 4.38$, $p < .05$) (See Table 16).

The number of times that the family transferred, was the next variable considered for comparison. In Group One, the mean number of times that corporate families transferred was 3.2 ($N = 17$). The mean number of times that Group Two wives transferred was 0.70 ($N = 5$). Because the distribution for Group One is positively skewed, and the number of wives, in Group Two, who have transferred is small ($N = 5$), the median may be the most appropriate measure of central tendency for this variable. The MD, for Group One, is 2, while the MD, for Group Two, is 0. A visual glance at Chart Two shows that corporate families apparently transfer more frequently than do families in the general population. Moreover, a statistically significant difference was found to exist between the mean averages of Group One and Group Two ($t = 2.31$, $p < .05$).

A comparison of the husband's incomes, for both the corporate wife and general population groups, indicated that, in Group One, husbands of corporate wives most frequently earned \$61,000 per year

TABLE 15
Comparison of Demographic Variable of
Number of Hours That Husbands Are Away
From Home for Work or Social Demands

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Unemployed (Recovering)	1	5%	0	0.00
3 to 6 hours	0	0.00%	1	5.9%
7 to 10 hours	6	30%	8	47.0%
11 to 14 hours	13	65%	7	41.2%
over 14 hours	0	0.00	1	5.9%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
	mean = 35		mean = 3.47	
	SD = .94		SD = .71	

$t = 1.06$

$p = 0.29$

$p > .05$

$df = 35$

TABLE 16
Comparison of Demographic Variable of Number of Weeks
That Husbands Travels for Their Company

Travel time per year	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
0 weeks	0	0.00	9	52.9%
less than 2 weeks	1	5%	3	17.6%
2 to 4 weeks	5	25%	1	5.9%
5 to 11 weeks	10	50%	2	11.8%
3 to 6 months	2	10%	2	11.8%
over 6 months	2	10%	0	0.00
Totals	20	100%	17	100%
mean = 2.95		mean = 1.1		
SD = .99		SD = 1.49		

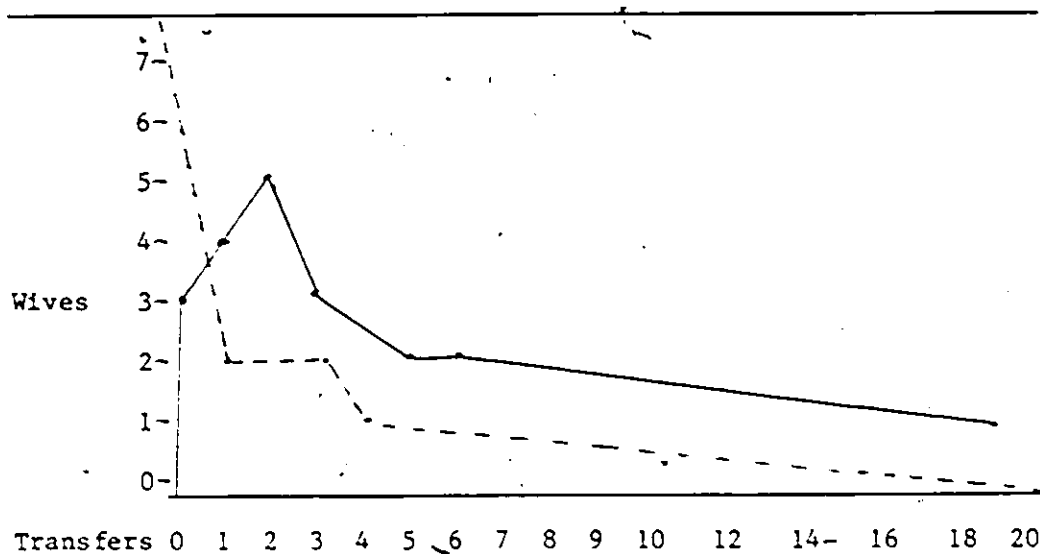
$t = 4.38$

$p < .05$

$df = 35$

CHART TWO

Comparison of Demographic Variable of Number
of Times Families Have Transferred



Group One = ———

N = 17

mean = 3.2

MD = 2

mode = 2

SD = 4.16

skewness = 3.12

Group Two = - - - -

N = 5

mean = 0.70

MD = 0

mode = 0

SD = 1.31

skewness = 1.74

TABLE 17

Comparison of Demographic Variable of Husband's Income

<u>Per Year</u>	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
under \$25,000	0	0.00	1	5.9%
\$25,000 to \$60,000	8	40%	10	58.8%
\$61,000 to \$90,000	9	45%	5	29.4%
\$91,000 to \$150,000	2	10%	1	5.9%
Totals	19	100%	17	100%

to \$90,000 per year (N = 9, 45%), while husbands, of wives in Group Two, most frequently earned \$26,000 per year to \$60,000 per year (N = 10, 58.8%). However, both groups' incomes appear similar since seventeen husbands, of wives in Group One (85%), earned between \$25,000 and \$90,000 per year, and fifteen husbands, of wives in Group Two (87%), earned between \$25,000 and \$90,000 per year (See Table 17).

Analysis of Open-Ended Questions

The purpose of the open-ended questions in this study was to test reliability of the data, in Part I of the Interview Schedule, and to provide more descriptive statistics for both the corporate wife and the general population groups (See Appendix B). The interviewer posed twelve questions, to the respondents, and recorded their responses.

The first open-ended question compared the sources of wives' dissatisfaction in their lives. In Group One, corporate wives most frequent sources of dissatisfaction were transfers (N = 7, 35%), and their husband's travel (N = 3, 15%). In Group Two, wives most frequent sources of dissatisfaction were identity and career concerns (N = 5, 29.4%), their marital relationship (N = 4, 23.5%), and their husband's work hours (N = 4, 23.5%) (See Table 18). The responses from corporate wives, in Group One, to this question, were consistent with the literature which states that transfers, and executive travel, are disruptive to the life of the

corporate wife (Berkwith, 1972; Weissman & Paykel, 1972; Seidenberg, 1973; Upson, 1974), in that 50% of corporate wives identified transfers and their husbands' travel as primary sources of dissatisfaction.

The second open-ended question compared the current issues causing problems or stress for both the corporate wife and the general population groups. In Group One, transfers (N = 5, 25%), and child-management problems (N = 5, 25%), were most frequently cited, and in Group Two, 'the wives' husbands' work hours (N = 4, 23.5%), and child-management problems (N = 4, 23.5%), were the issues or problems causing current stress (See Table 19). As previously stated in the analysis of question one, the literature states that transfers generate stress in the life of the corporate wife, and it appears that the responses from wives, in Group One, are consistent with the findings in the literature (Berkwith, 1972; Weissman & Paykel, 1972). The responses that child-management also generates stress, for corporate wives, in Group One, are consistent with the findings in the literature (Howes, 1970), and consistent with the responses from corporate wives for question one, which suggest that executive travel is disruptive, to their lives. According to the literature, one primary difficulty that the corporate wife seems to experience, as a result of her executive-husband's travel, is the burden of sole-child rearing responsibilities. Therefore, the stress relating to child-management may derive from the responsibilities of caring for

children while the executive-husband is absent, due to travel. However, wives, in Group Two, also cited child-management as a source of stress, by an almost equal percentage, which suggests that child-management is a problem experienced by both Groups One and Two. However, the stress from child-management may be more pronounced, in the corporate wife, since she is often left, solely, to cope with the responsibilities of caring for her children, because her husband is frequently absent from home, due to long work hours, and travel.

Question 3, from the open-ended section, compared the most serious or problematic event or issue, that occurred within the last 5 years, for both groups. In Group One, corporate wives stated that transfers were either the most serious event or issue, or that transfers created a serious problem or issue (e.g. loneliness of the wife) (N = 8, 40%). Group Two wives most frequently responded that the most serious event or issue was their marital relationship, or issues related to their marital relationship (e.g. communication problems) (N = 8, 50%) (See Table 20). It seems clear that transfers, and their by-products, for corporate wives, in Group One, are problematic and stressful events, rather than "anxiety-free adventures" (Berkwith, 1972).

The fourth open-ended question analyzed the issues or events causing current depression or feelings of depression for both corporate wife and general population groups. Corporate wives, in Group One, most frequently identified transfers or transfer-related

TABLE 18
Comparison of Wife's
Primary Source of Dissatisfaction

Category	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Illness or Death of extended family member	1	5%	0	0.00
Infertility	0	0.00	1	5.9%
Excessive home responsibilities	2	10%	0	0.00
Child-Management	1	5%	2	11.8%
Husband's travel	3	15%	0	0.00
Husband's work hours	2	10%	3	17.6%
Transfers	7	35%	2	11.8%
Marital relationship	2	10%	4	23.5%
Identity/career concerns	2	10%	5	29.5%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%

TABLE 19
Comparison of Wife's Primary
Issue or Event Causing Problems or Stress

Category	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Illness or Death of extended family member	0	0.00	1	5.9%
Infertility	0	0.00	1	5.9%
Excessive home responsibilities	0	0.00	3	17.6%
Child-Management	5	25%	4	23.5%
Husband's travel	3	15%	0	0.00
Husband's work hours	4	20%	4	23.5%
Transfers	5	25%	0	0.00
Marital relationship	3	15%	2	11.8%
Financial security	0	0.00	2	11.8%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%

TABLE 20
Comparison of Wife's Most Serious or
Problematic Event or Issue in the Last 5 Years

Category	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Illness or Death of extended family member	1	5%	1	6.2%
Infertility	1	5%	1	6.2%
Child-Management	3	15%	2	12.5%
Husband's travel	2	10%	0	0.00
Husband's work hours	1	5%	0	0.00
Transfers	8	40%	3	18.7%
Marital relationship	3	15%	8	50.0%
Identity/career concerns	1	5%	0	0.00
Financial security	0	0.00	1	6.2%
Totals	20	100%	*16	100%

* = 1 missing value

TABLE 21

Comparison of Wife's Primary Event or Issue
Causing Depression or Feelings of Depression

Category	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Infertility	1	5.9%	1	6.6%
Excessive home responsibilities	1	5.9%	1	6.6%
Child-Management	1	5.9%	2	11.8%
Husband's travel	2	11.8%	0	0.00
Husband's work hours	1	5.9%	2	13.3%
Transfers	5	29.4%	1	6.6%
Marital relationship	3	17.6%	6	40.0%
Identity/career concerns	3	17.6%	1	6.6%
Financial security	0	0.00	1	6.6%
Totals	*17	100%	*15	100%

* = 2 missing values for each group

issues (N = 5, 29.4%) as causing current depression, while wives in Group Two, most frequently identified their marital relationship, or issues related to their marital relationship (N = 6, 40%) as causing depression or feelings of depression (See Table 21). Consistent with the findings in the literature, corporate wives, in Group One, experience transfers as stressful (Seidenberg, 1973), and a breeding ground for depression (Berkwith, 1972; Weissman & Paykel, 1972).

The fifth open-ended question asked research respondents whether they had experienced suicidal feelings during their current marriage. In Group One, 75% of corporate wives responded "no" (N = 15), while 52.9% of wives, in Group Two, responded "no" (N = 9). Apparently, fewer corporate wives, in Group One, experienced suicidal feelings than did the wives in Group Two (See Table 22).

The sixth open-ended question asked research respondents whether they had experienced the desire to separate from, or divorce their spouse, during their current marriage. In Group One, 65% of wives responded "yes" (N = 13), while 58.8% of wives, in Group Two, responded "yes" (N = 10) (See Table 22). Apparently, more corporate wives (Group One) felt the desire to separate from, or divorce their spouses, than did wives in Group Two. The findings in the literature appear to contradict the responses, to this question, in that the literature states that the divorce rate is lower, among corporate wives, than it is among wives in the general population (Vandervelde, 1979). If corporate wives

experience the desire to separate from, or divorce their husbands, they do not appear to act on their feelings, possibly, because frequent transfers among corporate wives, allegedly, prevent them from pursuing a career of their own which would facilitate their financial independence, and increase the likelihood of separation or divorce (Seidenberg, 1973; Vandervelde, 1979).

Question 7 concerned the participants' encounter with physical violence, in the home, during their current marriage. In Group One, all of corporate wives responded "no", while 88.2% of wives, in Group Two, responded "no" (N = 15) (See Table 22). Apparently, the corporate wives encountered physical violence in their homes, less frequently, than did wives in the general population group.

The eighth open-ended question asked respondents whether they had participated in sexual infidelity during their current marriage. In Group One, 35% of wives (N = 7) responded that they participated in sexual infidelity, while 29.5% of wives, in Group Two (N = 5), participated in sexual infidelity (See Table 22). By a small margin, corporate wives more frequently participated in sexual infidelity, than did wives in the general population. Barnett (1968) reveals that corporate wives may seek sexual gratification outside of their marriage because the executive-husband either spends so much time away from home, or he is too preoccupied with work at home, to adequately contribute to the sexual relationship.

TABLE 22

Comparison of: Wife's Experience, During Present
 Marriage, of Suicidal Feelings; Separation/Divorce;
 Physical Violence in the Home; Sexual Infidelity;
 and Seeking Professional Help

	<u>Group One</u>					<u>Group Two</u>				
	No	%	Yes	%	N	No	%	Yes	%	N
During present marriage										
Suicidal feelings	15	75%	5	25%	20	9	52.9%	8	47.1%	17
Desire to separate or divorce	7	35%	13	65%	20	7	41.2%	10	58.1%	17
Presence of physical violence	20	100%	0	0.00	20	15	88.2%	2	11.8%	17
Sexual infidelity	13	65%	7	35%	20	12	70.5%	5	29.5%	17
Professional help	8	40%	12	60%	20	6	35.3%	11	64.7%	17

Question 12 asked respondents whether they had ever received professional help from a psychiatrist, psychologist, social worker, clergyman, or other therapist during their current marriage. In Group One, 60% of corporate wives (N = 12), and 64.7% of wives in Group Two (N = 11), responded that they received professional help at least one time during their marriage. Corporate wives, in Group One, less frequently sought professional help than did wives in Group Two, but the margin of difference is only 3.3% (See Table 22).

Question 9 focused on the respondent's concern about alcohol or drug use. Five corporate wives, in Group One (25%), were concerned about their own alcohol or drug use, while four wives, in Group Two (23.5%), were concerned about their own use. Three, of the four wives in Group Two, who expressed concern about their own alcohol or drug use, were also concerned about their own and their husband's use of such substances (See Table 23). Although the responses to this question are similar, in both groups, more corporate wives appeared to have concern about their own alcohol or drug use, than did wives in the general population group. The responses for this question were consistent with the literature in that Seidenberg (1973) cites examples, from his own private-practice, of a high degree of alcohol abuse among corporate wives. Seidenberg states that alcohol was used by these wives to help them cope with loneliness, and the stress generated from unwanted transfers.

The tenth open-ended question compares the primary sources from which wives, in both groups, seek support or comfort while experiencing problems. In Group One, only 40% of corporate wives seek support from their husbands ($N = 8$), (60% seek support from extended family members or friends), while more than half of the wives, in Group Two (52.9%); seek support from their husbands ($N = 9$) (See Table 24). The data, for this question, was consistent with the literature, which revealed that the long work hours of the executive-husband creates loneliness for his wife, and she must rely on others to satisfy her affiliation needs (Seidenberg, 1973). The data, for this question, was interesting, because more wives, in Group Two, seek support from their husbands, than do wives in Group One, and wives in Group Two most frequently responded to open-ended questions by identifying their marital relationship as a primary source of dissatisfaction, stress, or depression.

The eleventh open-ended question asked respondents what life-situation, issue, or event they would change, if any? In Group One, 45% of corporate wives would not have transferred ($N = 9$). Wives in Group Two responded that they would change or upgrade their careers ($N = 3$, 21.4%), and improve their financial status ($N = 3$, 21.4%) (See Table 25).

To summarize the open-ended questions, it is apparent that corporate wives (Group One) were much more frequently concerned about the effects that transfers had on their lives, than were wives in Group Two. Corporate wives felt suicidal less frequently,

TABLE 23

Comparison of Wife's Concern Over Alcohol
or Drug Use for Self, Husband, or Both Self and Husband

Category	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
No concern	10	50%	10	58.9%
Concern for self only	5	25%	1	5.9%
Concern for husband only	5	25%	3	17.6%
Concern for both self and husband	0	0.00	3	17.6%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%

TABLE 24
Comparison of Wife's Primary Source
of Comfort or Support While Experiencing Problems

Source	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Husband	8	40%	9	52.9%
Extended family	1	5%	2	11.8%
Friends	10	50%	4	23.5%
Other	1	5%	2	11.8%
Totals	20	100%	17	100%

TABLE 25

Comparison of Wife's Life-Situation,
Issue, or Event That They Would Like to Change

Category	<u>Group One</u>		<u>Group Two</u>	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
Change/update career	4	20%	3	21.4%
Would not have transferred	9	45%	2	14.2%
Improve marital relationship	2	10%	1	7.2%
Improve family relationship	1	5%	1	7.2%
Decrease husband's work hours	1	5%	1	7.2%
Increase number of children	2	10%	1	7.2%
Change marital status	1	5%	2	14.2%
Improve financial status	0	0.00	3	21.4%
Totals	20	100%	*14	100%

* = 3 missing values

encountered physical violence less frequently, and sought support from their husbands less frequently, than did wives in the general population. Corporate wives participated in sexual infidelity more frequently, had more concern for their own alcohol or drug use, and experienced the desire to separate from, or divorce their husbands more frequently, than did wives in the general population.

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis One states that the number of the corporate executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, will correlate negatively with his wife's marital satisfaction. Only data from Group One, (corporate wife group) will be used to test Hypothesis One.

The three variables, concerning the number of the corporate wife's husband's work hours, the frequency of his travel and transfers, determine the executive-husband's corporate-employment lifestyle. Marital satisfaction was measured by eight variables. They are: (1) satisfaction with "amount of time I spend with husband"; (2) satisfaction with "frequency of sexual activity with my husband"; (3) satisfaction with "quality of sexual activity with my husband"; (4) satisfaction with "number of times my family and I have transferred/relocated for husband's company"; (5) satisfaction with "amount of time husband travels for his company"; (6) satisfaction with "number of hours husband is away from home for work or social demands"; (7) satisfaction with "amount of time I

spend alone"; and (8) a summated marital satisfaction score determined by grouping variables (1) through (7).

The first variable determining the executive-husband's corporate-employment lifestyle, the number of the husband's work hours, showed a significant, but high negative correlation, with the corporate wife's satisfaction with the amount of time spent with her husband (probability = .0041; $p \leq .05$). Specifically, the greater number of hours that the husband was away from home for work or work-related social demands, the more dissatisfied was his wife with the amount of time that she spent with her husband. The number of the husband's work hours showed a significant, but moderately negative correlation, with the corporate wife's satisfaction with the amount of time spent alone (probability = .0366; $p \leq .05$). Specifically, the longer the husband was away from home for work demands, the more dissatisfied was his wife with the amount of time that she spent alone. The number of the husband's work hours also showed a significant, and high, negative correlation with the summated marital satisfaction score (probability = .0349; $p \leq .05$). Apparently, the greater the number of hours that the husband worked, the greater was his wife's marital dissatisfaction. The number of the husband's work hours showed no statistically significant level of correlation with other variables measuring marital satisfaction. (See Table 26).

The second variable, determining the executive-husband's corporate-employment lifestyle, the frequency of the husband's travel, showed no statistically significant level of correlation with the variables measuring marital satisfaction (See Table 26).

The third variable, determining the executive-husband's corporate-employment lifestyle, the frequency of transfers, showed a significant, but moderately negative correlation, with the corporate wife's satisfaction with the number of times that she has transferred for her husband's company (probability = .0356; $p < .05$). Specifically, the greater the number of times that the corporate wife transferred, the greater her dissatisfaction with transfers. The frequency of the number of transfers showed no statistically significant level of correlation with other variables measuring marital satisfaction (See Table 26).

Two other variables were considered, relative to the executive-husband's corporate-employment lifestyle. They are: (1) the corporate wife's number of hours per day spent in conversation with her husband; and (2) the number of hours, per week or month, that the corporate wife spends in sexual activity with her husband. The first variable was chosen for examination, because the amount of time that the corporate wife spends in conversation with her husband may be related to the number of hours that the husband is away from home. This variable may affect marital satisfaction, since little time together, between spouses, may affect intimacy (Feldberg & Kohen, 1976). The second variable relates to the

frequency of sexual activity, and may also affect marital satisfaction, since the literature states that "sexual activity plays a lesser role for (the executive) than it does for most men" (Packard, 1962, p.224).

The first variable of the wife's number of hours in conversation with her husband showed a significant, moderate, positive correlation with the summated marital satisfaction score (probability = .0349; $p \leq .05$). The interpretation of the correlation between these two variables is that the greater the number of hours that the corporate wife spends in conversation with her husband, the greater her marital satisfaction. No statistically significant level of correlation was found with any other variables measuring marital satisfaction (See Table 27).

The second variable of the wife's number of hours in sexual activity with her husband showed a significant, and high, positive correlation with the wife's satisfaction with the frequency of her sexual activity with her husband (probability = .0001; $p \leq .05$). Apparently, the greater the number of hours that the corporate wife spends in sexual activity with her husband, the greater her satisfaction with the frequency of sexual activity. No statistically significant level of correlation was found with any other variables measuring marital satisfaction (See Table 27).

TABLE 26
Table of Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation
Coefficients of the Relationship Between Variables
Specific to the Executive-Husband's Corporate
Employment-Lifestyle and Variables
Measuring Marital Satisfaction

Group One wife's satisfaction with:	N hours husband away from home for work demands	N hours husband travels for company	N times wife has transferred for company
Time spent with husband	1. -0.6262 (18) 2. 0.0041*	1. -0.3818 (20) 2. 0.8730	1. 0.1604 (17) 2. 0.53.84
Frequency of sex	1. -0.1830 (19) 2. 0.4533	1. -0.0171 (20) 2. 0.9429	1. -0.3379 (17) 2. 0.1849
Quality of sex	1. -0.2148 (18) 2. 0.3919	1. 0.1875 (19) 2. 0.4419	1. -0.2221 (16) 2. 0.4082
Number of transfers	1. -0.2062 (18) 2. 0.4115	1. 0.1137 (19) 2. 0.6428	1. -0.4827 (17) 2. 0.0356*
Amount of time husband travels	1. -0.2062 (18) 2. 0.4115	1. -0.9048 (20) 2. 0.7044	1. -0.1817 (17) 2. 0.4851
N of hours husband works	1. -0.2735 (19) 2. 0.2571	1. 0.2369 (20) 2. 0.3145	1. 0.1527 (17) 2. 0.5583
Time alone	1. -0.4821 (19) 2. 0.0366*	1. 0.1235 (20) 2. 0.6038	1. 0.2517 (17) 2. 0.3298
Summated marital	1. -0.7429 (18) 2. 0.0006*	1. 0.2252 (18) 2. 0.3689	1. -0.2171 (16) 2. 0.4192

1. = correlation coefficient

2. = probability

N in parantheses

* = $p \leq .05$

TABLE 27
Table of Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation
Coefficients of the Relationship Between Variables
Related to the Executive-Husband's Corporate Employment
Lifestyle and Variables Measuring Marital Satisfaction

Group One wife's satisfaction with:	N hours in conversation with husband	N hours in sexual activity with husband
Time spent with husband	1. 0.3465 (20) 2. 0.1344	1. 0.2027 (20) 2. 0.3913
Frequency of sex	1. 0.3108 (20) 2. 0.1822	1. 0.7500 (20) 2. 0.0001*
Quality of sex	1. 0.3424 (19) 2. 0.1512	1. 0.1825 (19) 2. 0.4544
N of transfers	1. 0.0808 (19) 2. 0.7421	1. 0.0682 (19) 2. 0.7813
Amount time husband travels	1. 0.0746 (20) 2. 0.7544	1. -0.1601 (20) 2. 0.5001
N hours husband works	1. 0.0321 (20) 2. 0.8931	1. 0.0000 (20) 2. 1.0000
Time alone	1. 0.2492 (20) 2. 0.2893	1. 0.2004 (20) 2. 0.3968
Summated marital	1. 0.4992 (18) 2. 0.0349*	1. 0.4184 (18) 2. 0.0840

1. = correlation coefficient

2. = probability

N in parantheses

* = $p \leq .05$

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis Two states that the number of the executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, will correlate negatively with his wife's personal satisfaction. Only data from Group One, (corporate wife) will be used to test Hypothesis Two.

The same three variables, concerning the husband's number of work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, refer to the executive-husband's corporate employment lifestyle. Personal satisfaction was measured by five variables. They are: (1) satisfaction with "my career/occupational level at present"; (2) satisfaction with the "number of intimate friends in my life"; (3) satisfaction with the "number of acquaintances in my life"; (4) satisfaction with "my personal growth/personal identity"; and (5) a summated personal satisfaction score determined by grouping variables (1) through (4).

For all three variables, specific to the executive-husband's corporate employment lifestyle, there were no statistically significant levels of correlation with any of the variables measuring personal satisfaction (See Table 28). Since Seidenberg (1973), and Vandervelde (1979) wrote extensively on the negative effects of transfers on the corporate wife's career development, and on the destructive impact of transfers on the wife's ability to sustain intimate friendships, it is noteworthy that no statistically significant correlations were found between the

variables referring to the husband's employment and the variables measuring personal satisfaction.

Three other demographic variables were examined to determine their relationship to the corporate wife's personal satisfaction. They are: (1) the age of the corporate wife; (2) her educational level; and (3) her husband's income.

The first variable considered, relative to the personal satisfaction of the corporate wife, was her age. A significant, but moderately negative correlation was found, between the age of the wife and her satisfaction with her career or occupational level at present (probability = 0.0255; $p \leq .05$). Specifically, it appears that the older the wife, the less satisfied she was with her career level. A significant, and high, negative correlation was found, between the age of the wife and her satisfaction with her personal growth or personal identity (probability = 0.0029; $p \leq .05$). The wife's age also correlates significantly, highly and negatively, with the summated personal satisfaction score (probability = 0.0025; $p \leq .05$). It appears that the older the wife, the less satisfied she was with her personal growth or identity, and with her personal satisfaction, in general (See Table 29).

The second variable considered, relative to the personal satisfaction of the corporate wife, was her educational level. No statistically significant level of correlation was found between the education of the wife and the variables measuring personal satisfaction (See Table 29).

The third variable, of the husband's income, significantly and negatively correlated with the corporate wife's satisfaction with her career level (probability = 0.0263; $p \leq .05$; moderate association), her number of intimate friends (probability = 0.0059; $p \leq .05$; moderate association), her personal growth or personal identity (probability = 0.0201; $p \leq .05$; moderate association), and her summated personal satisfaction score (probability = 0.0003; $p \leq .05$; high association).

In summary, it appears that the higher the executive-husband's income, the more dissatisfied was his wife with her career level, her number of intimate friends, her personal growth or identity, and her personal satisfaction, in general (See Table 29). Perhaps, the higher the income of the husband, the greater his loyalty to his company, which may mean longer work hours, and more frequent traveling and transfers. It has already been stated that these vicissitudes of the executive-husband's corporate employment may thwart the personal and career development of the corporate wife. The higher the income of the husband may also mean that the corporate wife adheres more closely to the corporate wife stereotype, thus again, focusing more on aiding her husband in his career, while focusing less on her own career development, and personal growth (Seidenberg, 1973; Vandervelde, 1979). The findings in this study, which show negative, statistically significant correlations, between the income of the executive-husband and the personal satisfaction of the corporate

TABLE 28
Table of Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation
Coefficients of the Relationship Between Variables
Specific to the Executive-Husband's Corporate
Employment-Lifestyle and Variables
Measuring Personal Satisfaction

Group One wife's satisfaction with:	N hours husband away from home for work demands	N hours husband travels for company	N times wife has transferred for company
Career level (at present)	1. -0.0180 (19) 2. 0.9417	1. 0.1292 (20) 2. 0.5870	1. 0.2379 (17) 2. 0.3578
Number of intimate friends	1. -0.2368 (19) 2. 0.3290	1. -0.0784 (20) 2. 0.7423	1. -0.2713 (17) 2. 0.2922
Number of acquaintances	1. 0.0000 (19) 2. 1.0000	1. -0.3441 (20) 2. 0.1373	1. 0.3778 (17) 2. 0.1349
Personal growth/ identity	1. 0.0408 (19) 2. 0.8680	1. -0.0056 (20) 2. 0.9829	1. -0.0503 (17) 2. 0.8478
Summated personal	1. -0.0748 (19) 2. 0.7608	1. -0.0629 (20) 2. 0.7922	1. -0.2929 (17) 2. 0.2538

1. = correlation coefficient

2. = probability

N in parantheses

* = $p \leq .05$

TABLE 29
Table of Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation
Coefficients of the Relationship Between Variables of
Corporate Wife's Age, Education, and Husband's Income,
and Variables Measuring Personal Satisfaction

Group One wife's satisfaction with:	Age of wife	Education of wife	Husband's income
Career level (at present)	1. -0.4977 (20) 2. 0.0255*	1. -0.1084 (20) 2. 0.6491	1. -0.4956 (20) 2. 0.0263*
Number of intimate friends	1. -0.3142 (20) 2. 0.1773	1. 0.3947 (20) 2. 0.0850	1. -0.5921 (20) 2. 0.0059*
Number of acquaintances	1. -0.0890 (20) 2. 0.0708	1. 0.0332 (20) 2. 0.1521	1. -0.2045 (30) 2. 0.3869
Personal growth/ identity	1. -0.6298 (20) 2. 0.0020*	1. 0.0909 (20) 2. 0.7031	1. -0.5151 (20) 2. 0.0201*
Summated personal	1. -0.6371 (20) 2. 0.0025*	1. 0.2135 (20) 2. 0.3660	1. -0.7295 (20) 2. 0.0003*

1. = correlation coefficient

2. = probability

N in parantheses

* = $p < .05$

wife, conflicts with Winstanly's (1984) findings that, the higher the income of the corporate wife's husband, the more personally "adjusted" was the corporate wife. In Winstanly's (1984) study, corporate wives were separated into two groups, according to their husband's income. Group 1 included corporate wives of husbands earning over \$85,000 per year, and Group 2 included wives of husbands earning under \$85,000 per year. The results of Winstanly's (1984) study showed that wives in Group 2 were "less personally adjusted" than wives in Group 1. The husbands' income level, of the wives in Group 2, of Winstanly's study, more closely resembles the husbands' income level of the corporate wives in Group One of this study. Whereas the wives, in Group 2, of Winstanly's study with lower incomes (less than \$85,000 per year) were less "personally adjusted" than were wives, in Group 1 with higher incomes, corporate wives, in this study, were less personally satisfied as their husbands' incomes increased.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis Three states that the marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career selection of corporate wives differs significantly from those of wives in the general population. Data from both Groups One and Two will be used to test Hypothesis Three.

Hypothesis Three was first tested by applying the t-test procedure, of testing the differences between means of the summated

marital satisfaction score, and the summated personal satisfaction score, for both the corporate wife Group One, and the general population Group Two. The mean score, in Group One, for summated marital satisfaction, was 2.682, while the mean score, in Group Two, for summated marital satisfaction was 2.510. No statistically significant difference was found, between the two groups, regarding marital satisfaction ($t = 1.094$; $p = 0.2851$; $p > .05$; equal variances). The mean score, in Group One, for summated personal satisfaction was 2.750, while the mean score, in Group Two, for summated personal satisfaction was 2.941. No statistically significant difference was found between the two groups, regarding personal satisfaction ($t = -1.048$; $p = 0.3016$; $p > .05$; equal variances) (See Table 30).

Hypothesis Three was further tested by applying the t -test procedure, of testing the differences between means of the variables measuring career selection of both corporate wives and wives from the general population. The variables measuring career selection were: 1) the number of hours spent in employment activities, 2) the number of hours spent in household/housekeeping activities, 3) the number of hours spent in educational activities, and 4) the number of hours spent in volunteer/community activities. The first variable concerning employment hours showed no statistically significant difference between group means ($t = -0.918$; $p = 0.3648$; $p > .05$; equal variances) (See Table 31). The second variable concerning household activities showed no

statistically significant difference between group means ($t = 0.839$; $p = 0.4087$; $p > .05$; equal variances) (See Table 32). The third variable, concerning educational activities, showed no statistically significant difference between group means ($t = 0.836$; $p = 0.4087$; $p > .05$; equal variances) (See Table 33). The fourth variable, concerning volunteer activities, did show a statistically significant difference between group means ($t = 0.005$; $p = 0.05$; $p \leq .05$; equal variances) (See Table 34). Although the number of employment, housekeeping, and educational hours of corporate wives did not differ significantly from the hours of wives in the general population, the number of hours spent in volunteer activities, between groups, did. The literature shows that a stereotype, of corporate wife behavior, encouraged corporate wives to work in volunteer or community activities, in lieu of working for a salary outside the home (Whyte, 1951; Vandervelde, 1979). The results, in this research, comparing the number of hours spent in volunteer activities between both groups, suggests that corporate wives may still be encouraged to participate in volunteer or community activities more often, than are wives in the general population.

TABLE 30
Comparison of T-Test Scores of Means Between
Groups For Summated Marital Satisfaction
and Summated Personal Satisfaction

	<u>Group One</u>			<u>Group Two</u>		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Summated marital satisfaction	18	2.682	0.296	17	2.510	0.479
Summated personal satisfaction	20	2.750	0.628	17	2.941	0.446

(marital) $t = 1.094$

$df = 33.0$

$p = 0.281$

$p > .05$

(personal) $t = -1.048$

$df = 35.0$

$p = 0.301$

$p > .05$

TABLE 31
Comparison of T-Test Scores of Means Between Groups
For Demographic Variable of Number of Hours
Spent in Employment Activities

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>			<u>Group Two</u>		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Employment activities	20	1.35	1.30	17	1.76	1.43

$t = 1.094$

$df = 33.0$

$p = 0.281$

$p > .05$

TABLE 32

Comparison of T-Test Scores of Means Between Groups
 For Demographic Variable of Number of Hours Spent in
 Household/Housekeeping Activities

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>			<u>Group Two</u>		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Household/ housekeeping activities	20	1.90	0.71	17	1.70	0.68

$t = 0.839$

$df = 35.0$

$p = 0.408$

$p > .05$

TABLE 33

Comparison of T-Test Scores of Means Between Groups
 For Demographic Variable of Number of Hours
 Spent in Educational Activities

Hours Per Day	<u>Group One</u>			<u>Group Two</u>		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Educational activities	20	0.90	0.71	17	0.70	0.68

$t = 0.836$

$df = 35.0$

$p = 0.408$

$p > .05$

TABLE 34

Comparison of T-Test Scores of Means Between Groups
For Demographic Variable of Number of Hours Spent in
Volunteer or Community Activities

Hours Per Week	<u>Group One</u>			<u>Group Two</u>		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Volunteer/ community activities	20	1.54	1.12	17	0.82	0.95

$t = 0.005$

$df = 35.0$

$p = 0.05$

$p \leq .05$

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Summary

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between the marital and personal satisfaction of the corporate wife and her executive-husband's corporate employment-lifestyle. The First and Second Hypotheses directly addressed these relationships, and the Third Hypothesis compared the mean averages of the variables measuring marital and personal satisfaction, for both corporate wives (Group One), and for wives from the general population (Group Two). Hypothesis Three also compared the mean averages of the variables measuring career selection, for both groups. Samples, for both groups, were selected by an accidental sampling procedure. Group One included 20 corporate wives, and Group Two included 17 wives from the general population.

Minuchin's (1974) theory of family structure and family relationships suggests that individuals within a family aspire to achieve both belongingness identity, and separateness identity, which, in this study, represents marital satisfaction, and personal satisfaction, respectively. The marital and personal

satisfaction of the corporate wife, was correlated with the vicissitudes of her executive-husband's corporate employment lifestyle, in Hypotheses One and Two. The marital and personal satisfaction of the corporate wife was also compared with the marital satisfaction of the wife in the general population, in Hypothesis Three.

Belongingness refers to family attachments, and separateness refers to individual differentiation, and the ability to accomodate to the external culture (in this study, the external culture refers to the corporation). The corporate wife, and her executive-husband, potentially achieve belongingness through their affiliation, and intimacy, with each other. Belongingness may be thwarted if the husband's loyalty to the corporation allows him little time to spend at home. The ability of the corporate wife to achieve belongingness identity may affect her marital satisfaction.

The corporate wife potentially achieves separateness, or individual differentiation, in her marriage, from whatever personal recognition she has achieved through career, educational, or volunteer accomplishments. For some wives, separateness may also occur, for the corporate wife, from the utilization of a special talent, or from satisfaction with the role of homemaker or mother. Allegedly, the corporate wife's selection of a career affects her personal satisfaction. Separateness identity also includes the corporate wife's ability to adapt to the demands of her husband's corporate lifestyle. Her ability to adapt may affect her personal satisfaction.

Descriptive Demographic Variables.

The entire sample of wives, in both Group One and Group Two, were statistically similar in the following areas: the number of years that they had been married; the number of children living at home; and their educational level. Wives, in both groups, were also similar in respect to: the number of hours that they spent in the various activities of employment; housekeeping; education; time with friends; recreation with, and without, their husbands; conversation with their husbands; time alone; and sexual activity. The number of hours that the husband was away from home, for work or work-related social demands, were similar for both the corporate wife and the general population groups.

Differences, between the two groups of wives, were statistically significant for all five demographic variables. The first difference, was their age. The mean age of the corporate wives group was 37 years, while the mean age of the wives in the general population, was 33 years. The ages of the husbands also differed. The mean age of husbands, in Group One, was 40 years, while the mean age of the husbands, in Group Two, was 35 years. Although the number of hours that wives, in both groups, spent in employment activities, housekeeping activities, and education were similar, corporate wives spent more hours per week in volunteer activities than did wives from the general population. Wives from Group One and Group Two differed in the frequency that their husbands traveled for their company. The mean average, for Group

One, was 2.95 (5 to 11 weeks per year), while the mean average, for Group Two, was 1.1 (less than 2 weeks per year). Corporate families also transferred more frequently than families from the general population (Group One mean = 3.2 transfers during present marriage); (Group Two mean = 0.70, or less than 1 transfer during present marriage).

Open-Ended Questions.

Corporate wives (Group One) were similar to wives in the general population (Group Two), in that they had desired, to separate from, or divorce their husbands (at least once during their present marriage). They were also similar in their concerns for their own alcohol or drug use, and their husbands' use of such substances, their participation in sexual infidelity during their present marriage, the sources from which they sought support or comfort while experiencing problems, and their experiences of seeking professional help.

Wives, in Group One, were different from wives, in Group Two, in relation to their primary sources of dissatisfaction, and stress, and in relation to the issues or events causing current depression. Corporate wives seemed most concerned about the affects of transfers in their lives, while wives in the general population were most concerned about their marital relationships. Wives in both groups differed in the number who experienced suicidal feelings (Group One said "no" 75% of the time; Group Two

said "no" 52.9% of the time). None of the corporate wives, in Group One, encountered physical violence in their homes, while 88.2% of wives, in Group Two, said that they had not encountered any physical violence in their homes.

Hypothesis One.

Hypothesis One states that the number of the corporate executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, will correlate negatively with his wife's marital satisfaction. Only data from the corporate wife (Group One) was used to test Hypothesis One.

Significant correlations were found between the number of the husband's work hours and three of the variables measuring marital satisfaction, and between the frequency of transfers and one of the variables measuring marital satisfaction.

The demographic variable, of the number of hours that the husband is away from home for work or work-related social demands correlated, negatively, with the corporate wife's satisfaction with the amount of time that she spends with her husband (correlation = -0.6267 ; $p = .0041$; $p \leq .05$; high association). This demographic variable also correlated, negatively, with the wife's satisfaction with the amount of time that she spends alone (correlation = -0.4821 ; $p = .0366$; $p \leq .05$; moderate association). The strongest, most statistically significant, correlation found, in support of Hypothesis One, occurred between the number of the

husband's work hours and the corporate wife's summated marital satisfaction score (correlation = $-.7429$; $p = .0006$; $p \leq .05$; high association).

The demographic variable, relating to the corporate family's frequency of transfers, correlated, negatively, with the wife's satisfaction with her number of transfers (correlation = -0.4842 ; $p = .0356$; $p \leq .05$; moderate correlation).

No statistically significant level of correlation was found between the frequency of the husband's travel and the variables measuring marital satisfaction.

Two demographic variables, related to the executive-husband's corporate employment-lifestyle, were also correlated with the variables measuring marital satisfaction. The first variable, concerning the number of hours that the corporate wife spends in conversation with her husband, showed a significant, positive, correlation, with the wife's summated marital score (correlation = $.4992$; $p = .0349$; $p \leq .05$; moderate association). The second variable, concerning the number of hours that the corporate wife spends in sexual activity with her husband, showed a statistically significant, positive, correlation with the corporate wife's satisfaction with the frequency of her sexual activity (correlation = $.7500$; $p = .0001$; $p \leq .05$; high association).

Hypothesis Two.

Hypothesis Two states that the number of the corporate executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, will correlate negatively with his wife's personal satisfaction. Only data from the corporate wife (Group One) will be used to test Hypothesis Two.

No statistically significant levels of correlation were found between the work hours of the husband, the frequency of his travel, and the number of transfers, and the variables measuring the personal satisfaction of the corporate wife.

Three other demographic variables were correlated with the personal satisfaction of the corporate wife to determine significant associations. The first variable, the age of the wife, showed a significant, but moderate, negative, correlation between the age of the wife and her satisfaction with her career or occupational level at present (correlation = -0.4977 ; $p = 0.0255$; $p \leq .05$). A significant, high, negative, correlation was found between the age of the wife and her satisfaction with her personal growth or personal identity (correlation = -0.6298 ; $p = 0.0029$; $p \leq .05$). The wife's age also correlated significantly, highly, and negatively, with the summated personal satisfaction score (correlation = -0.6371 ; $p = 0.0025$; $p \leq .05$).

The second variable considered, was the educational level of the corporate wife. No statistically significant level of correlation was found between the education of the wife and the variables measuring her personal satisfaction.

The third variable, the income of the executive-husband, correlated, significantly and negatively, with the corporate wife's satisfaction with her career level (correlation = -0.4956 ; $p = 0.0263$; $p \leq .05$; moderate association), her number of intimate friends (correlation = -0.5921 ; $p = 0.0059$; $p \leq .05$; moderate association), her personal growth or personal identity (correlation = -0.5151 ; $p = 0.0201$; $p \leq .05$; moderate association), and her summated personal satisfaction score (correlation = -0.7295 ; $p = 0.0003$; $p \leq .05$; high association).

Hypothesis Three.

Hypothesis Three states that the marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career selection of corporate wives differs, significantly, from those of wives in the general population. Data from both Group One and Group Two will be used to test Hypothesis Three.

No statistically significant correlations were found between groups for summated marital satisfaction and personal satisfaction, nor did any statistically significant correlations occur, between groups, for three of the variables relating to the career selection of the wife, concerning the number of hours spent in employment, household/housekeeping, or educational activities. A statistically significant difference was found, between group means, for the variable relating to the career selection of the wife, concerning the number of hours spent in volunteer or community activities ($t = 0.005$; $p = 0.05$; $p \leq .05.0$).

Conclusions

Hypothesis One.

Hypothesis One states that the number of the corporate executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, correlate negatively with his wife's marital satisfaction.

Hypothesis One was partially accepted because the demographic variable concerning the corporate wife's husband's work hours significantly, and negatively, correlated with the corporate wife's satisfaction with the amount of time that she spends with her husband ($p = .0041$). The executive-husband's number of work hours also correlated, significantly and negatively, with the variable measuring the amount of time that she spends alone ($p = .0366$), and with her summated marital satisfaction score ($p = .0006$). Hypothesis One was also partially accepted because the corporate wife's number of transfers correlated, significantly and negatively, with her satisfaction with the frequency of transfers ($p = .0356$). Because a .05 alpha level of significance was designated as the cut-off point at which statistical significance was determined, associations between the demographic variables and the marital satisfaction variables could have occurred, by chance, only five times or less than five times out of one-hundred. Thus, the Null Hypothesis One, stating that there is no relationship between the corporate wife's marital satisfaction and the number of her husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, was rejected.

Minuchin (1974) states that individuals in a family aspire to achieve belongingness identity. Since the corporate wife's satisfaction with her husband's work hours, and her satisfaction with the amount of time that she spends alone, correlates, negatively, with the number of hours that her husband is away from home for work or work-related social demands, the corporate wife appears dissatisfied with her ability to achieve belongingness within her marriage. Her marital satisfaction is negatively affected because, according to Minuchin's (1974) theory, her sense of belongingness, in her marriage, is thwarted. The long term effect of unfulfilled belongingness in a marriage is, according to Minuchin's theory, disengagement between spouses.

Hypothesis Two.

Hypothesis Two states that the number of the corporate executive-husband's work hours, and the frequency of his travel and transfers, will correlate negatively with his wife's personal satisfaction.

Hypothesis Two was rejected because no statistically significant levels of correlation were found between the demographic variables concerning the executive-husband's work hours, his travel, and transfers, and the variables measuring the personal satisfaction of the corporate wife. Thus, the Null Hypothesis Two, stating that there is no relationship between the corporate wife's personal satisfaction and the number of her husband's work hours, his travel, and transfers, was accepted.

Minuchin (1974) theorized that, along with the individual's need to achieve belongingness in a family, separateness identity is also sought. Individuation, in a marriage, may occur by a spouse's pursuit of accomplishments that are separate from the goals that they share together. Traditionally, the executive-husband has been able to satisfy separateness in his marriage through career fulfillment because his wife has attended to household and parental duties, and aided her husband in his career. The husband may be in conflict if his wife does not attend to these duties, or if these duties are not allocated to supportive systems, such as child-care facilities, outside the marriage. Likewise, the corporate wife who seeks to fulfill her own individuation, through career pursuits, may do so only if she is able to negotiate reciprocation, from her spouse. Since no statistically significant levels of correlation were found between the executive-husband's work hours, his travel, and transfers, and the variables measuring the corporate wife's personal satisfaction, particularly those measuring career and identity satisfaction, it appears that the corporate wife has achieved a sense of separateness in her marriage.

Hypothesis Three.

Hypothesis Three states that the marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career selection of corporate wives differs, significantly, from those of wives in the general population.

Hypothesis Three was rejected because no statistically significant differences were found between group means for summated marital satisfaction scores, and personal satisfaction scores. Hypothesis Three was also rejected because no statistically significant differences were found between group means for three of the variables relating to the wife's career selection, concerning her number of hours spent in employment, housekeeping, and education. Only one variable relating to the career selection of the wife, her number of hours spent in volunteer or community activities, showed a statistically significant difference between group means ($p = .05$). The statistically significant difference between group means for this variable, alone, does not seem strong enough to partially accept Hypothesis Three. Thus, the Null Hypothesis Three, stating that the marital satisfaction, personal satisfaction, and career selection of corporate wives "does not differ, significantly, from those of the wives in the general population, is accepted.

Recommendations for Counseling

Counseling may be indicated in four areas. Marital counseling may create awareness for the corporate wife and her husband of the need to examine their interdependence with each other, thus facilitating a balance between belongingness and individuation.

Individual counseling may be indicated for wives whose husbands will not participate in marital therapy. Individual counseling for the corporate wife may aid in mobilizing her inner strengths toward greater individuation, within her marriage.

Group counseling is recommended for recently transferred corporate wives. A group experience may prevent, or at least, mitigate, the depression often following a transfer. Group counseling may also provide a social function for transferred wives who may otherwise spend many months in social isolation after a relocation.

Career counseling for the corporate wife may be indicated to help her extricate herself from the career role of helpmate to her husband in his career. This recommendation was born out of the significant, negative correlation between the corporate wife's husband's income, and her satisfaction with her career level. Gullota (1981) found that the higher the income of the husband, the less likely is the corporate wife to pursue a career of her own.

Recommendations to Corporations


It is recommended that career counseling, for the corporate wife, be included as a corporate-sponsored service with each transfer, to facilitate her adjustment, and to aid her in continuing her career development. It is also recommended that the corporate wife be provided, by the corporation, such services as travel fare, lodging, and an expense account, to allow the corporate wife to apply for employment in the city to which she and her husband are being transferred, before the actual move occurs. It is further recommended that all penalties be removed for those

corporate executives who decline a transfer because of the inconvenience that it may cause his family.

It is strongly recommended that corporations compile and sponser information, for the transferring family, on the quality and proximity of educational and recreational facilities, in the area to which the family will be relocating, to ease the adjustment of the children of transferred corporate families.

APPENDIX A

PLEASE ANSWER ALL ITEMS ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE. THERE ARE NO RIGHT ANSWERS. SELECT THE ANSWER THAT BEST DESCRIBES YOU OR HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT AN ITEM. SOME OF THE ITEMS REQUEST A MORE FACTUAL OR OBJECTIVE ANSWER SUCH AS (EXAMPLE) THE NUMBER OF HOURS YOU AND YOUR HUSBAND SOCIALIZE WITH FRIENDS PER WEEK. OTHER ITEMS ARE ATTITUDINAL ONES THAT ASK (EXAMPLE) HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT THE COMMUNITY YOU LIVE IN. IF YOU ARE NOT ABLE TO ANSWER AN ITEM, SKIP THE ITEM. PLEASE READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY. I THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS IMPORTANT STUDY.

 IN THIS SECTION, PLEASE WRITE IN THE INFORMATION FOR EACH ITEM.

- (1) My age _____ Husband's age _____
- (2) Number of years married to present husband _____
- (3) My total number of marriages _____ Husband's _____
- (4) Age at which I married for the first time _____
- (5) Number of children from my present marriage _____
- (6) Number of children from previous marriage(s) _____
- (7) Ages of children living with you presently _____
- (8) Hometown/city and state in which I was raised is _____
- (9) My father's occupation is/was _____
- (10) My mother's occupation is/was _____

PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING SCALE TO ANSWER ITEMS 11, 12, and 13.

SCALE: (a) excellent (b) satisfactory (c) unsatisfactory

(11) My health is _____

(12) My husband's health is _____

(13) My children's health is (choose a, b, or c for all children living with you). _____

PLEASE answer questions 14 through 24 by placing a ✓ or an X in the appropriate column next to the question. These questions concern the NUMBER OF HOURS you spend in DAILY ACTIVITIES. PLEASE answer according to the AVERAGE number of hours PER DAY that you spend in these activities. *(Some of the hours may overlap. For example: You may spend 3 hours a day in housekeeping activities and 4 hours a day completely alone. The hours spent alone may also be the hours spent in housekeeping activities.)

	a	b	c	d	e	f
(a) non-applicable	Non-applicable	Less than 1 hour to 2 hours per day	3 to 6 hours per day	7 to 11 hours per day	11 to 14 hours per day	over 14 hours per day
(b) less than 1 to 2 hours per day						
(c) 3 to 6 hours per day						
(d) 7 to 10 hours per day						
(e) 11 to 14 hours per day						
(f) over 14 hours per day						
(14) Number of hours a day I spend in employment activities.						
(15) Number of hours a day I spend with friends/acquaintances.						
(16) Number of hours a day I spend completely alone.						
(17) Number of hours a day I spend in housekeeping activities.						

	a	b	c	d	e	f
	Non-applicable	Less than one hour to two hours per day	3 to 6 hours per day	7 to 1 hours per day	12 to 14 hours per day	over 14 hours per day
(18) Number of hours a day I spend in child care activities.						
(19) Number of hours a day I spend in conversation with my husband.						
(20) Number of hours a day husband is AWAY FROM HOME for work or work-related activities.						
(21) Number of hours a day husband spends in housekeeping activities.						
(22) Number of hours a day husband spends in child-care activities.						
(23) Number of hours a day I spend in educational/skill-enrichment activities.						
(24) Number of hours a day husband spends in educational or skill-enrichment activities.						

PLEASE answer items 25 through 29 by placing a check or an X in the appropriate column next to the item. Answer according to the AVERAGE number of hours PER WEEK that you spend in these activities.

- (a) non-applicable
 (b) less than 1 to 3 hours per week
 (c) 4 to 8 hours per week
 (d) 9 to 15 hours per week
 (e) 16 to 25 hours per week
 (f) over 25 hours per week
- (25) Number of hours per week I spend in recreational activities with my husband.
- (26) Number of hours per week I spend in recreational activities without my husband.
- (27) Number of hours per week husband spends in recreational activities without me.
- (28) Number of hours per week I spend in community activities or volunteer work.
- (29) Number of hours per week husband spends in community activities/volunteer work.

a	b	c	d	e	f
Non-applicable	Less than 1 to 3 hours p/week	4 to 8 hours p/week	9 to 15 hours p/week	16 to 25 hours p/week	over 25 hours p/week

PLEASE answer item 30 by using the scale below. This is an IMPORTANT but optional item. If you choose not to answer, skip the item.

SCALE:

- (a) less than once per month
 (b) 1 to 3 times per month
 (c) once per week
 (d) several times per week
 (e) once daily
 (f) more than once daily

(30) Number of times per week/month my husband and I spend in sexual activity together. _____

THE FOLLOWING SECTION CONCERNS CAREER/EMPLOYMENT/RESIDENCY.

PLEASE WRITE-IN the appropriate answer to items 31 through 33.

- (31) Number of years living in town/city in which I now reside _____
- (32) Number of times I have moved either within a city or to another city in total since my current marriage _____
- (33) How many of these moves were the result of MY HUSBAND being TRANSFERRED to another town/city for a promotion, job change, or company relocation? _____

PLEASE answer items 34 and 35 by placing a ✓ or an X in the appropriate column.

	a	b	c	d	e	f
(a) less than high school graduate	Less than high school grad.	High school grad.	Some College	College Grad.	Master's/ post graduate	Ph.D., M.D., L.L.D.
(b) high school graduate						
(c) some college						
(d) college graduate						
(e) post grad. level/Master's level						
(f) post Master's level/PhD., M.D., L.L.D., etc...						
(34) My educational level is						
(35) My husband's educational level is						

PLEASE WRITE-IN the answers to questions 36 and 37.

- (36) My profession/occupation/employment position is _____
- (37) My husband's profession/occupation/employment position is _____

PLEASE select a, b, c, or d to answer item 38.

- (a) lower-level management (b) middle-level management
- (c) upper-level management (d) non-applicable
- (38) My husband's employment position is considered to be _____

PLEASE WRITE IN the appropriate answers to items 39-43.

(39) My husband's position/title is _____

(40) Husband's total number of years in his PRESENT position _____

(41) Husband's total number of years at his PRESENT company _____

(42) (ANSWER ONLY IF APPLICABLE) Husband's total number of years as corporate employee in MANAGERIAL/EXECUTIVE LEVEL POSITION at any/all companies for which he has worked _____

(43) (ANSWER ONLY IF APPLICABLE) Husband's number of promotions in total _____

PLEASE use the following scale to answer items 44 and 45.

SCALE:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|
| (a) under \$25,000 per year | (d) \$91,000 per year |
| (b) \$26,000 per year | (e) over \$150,000 |
| (c) \$61,000 to \$91,000 | (f) non-applicable |

(44) My husband's annual income AT PRESENT is _____

(45) My annual income AT PRESENT is _____

PLEASE use the following scale to answer item 46.

SCALE:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| (a) Does not travel at all | (d) 5 to 11 weeks per year |
| (b) less than 2 weeks per year | (e) 3 to 6 months per year |
| (c) 2 to 4 weeks per year | (f) non-applicable |

(46) Number of weeks/months per year my husband travels for his company _____

PLEASE use the following scale to answer item 47.

SCALE:

- | | | |
|---------------|-------------|--------------------|
| (a) never | (c) usually | (e) non-applicable |
| (b) sometimes | (d) always | |

(47) When my husband travels for his company, I go with him _____

THE FOLLOWING SECTION CONCERNS YOUR ATTITUDES AND YOUR DEGREE OF
SATISFACTION/DISSATISFACTION

PLEASE answer items 48 through 59 by placing a ✓ or an X in the
appropriate column next to the item.

I FEEL THAT MY HUSBAND'S CAREER/POSITION/
COMPANY INFLUENCES OR DETERMINES FOR ME:

	a	b	c	d
	not at all	sometimes	usually	always
(48) The way I dress.....				
(49) My public behavior.....				
(50) The friends I select.....				
(51) The people with whom my husband and I socialize.....				
(52) The problems I have.....				
(53) The home I live in.....				
(54) The community/neighborhood I live in.....				
(55) Whether or not I work outside the home.....				
(56) My occupation.....				
(57) My daily activity priorities.....				
(58) The amount of time I am able to spend with my husband.....				
(59) The amount/frequency of my community involvement.....				

(60) PLEASE rank the following items from 1 to 6 according to their order of importance or priority in your life. A rank of 1 indicates the most important priority, a rank of 6, the least.

	<u>YOUR RANK</u>
Husband's career	_____
My identity	_____
Home/household	_____
My career	_____
Social activities	_____
Husband/children	_____

PLEASE answer items 61 through 72 by placing a or an X in the appropriate column next to the item. Answer according to whether the item is a source of stress in your life AT PRESENT, or a source of pleasure and support AT PRESENT. Some items such as "relationship with children" can be both supportive AND stressful, but choose the one that best describes the way you feel about it. If an item does not apply to you, skip the item.

	<u>STRESSFUL</u>	<u>SUPPORTIVE</u>
(61) Relationship with children	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(62) My friendships	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(63) Husband's employment activities	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(64) Social activities/expectations	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(65) Relationship with husband	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(66) Relationship with extended family (in-laws/parents/siblings, etc...)	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(67) My sense of personal growth or personal identity	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(68) My career/job/profession	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(69) Community/neighborhood	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(70) My spiritual involvement	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(71) My time alone	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
(72) Financial security	<u> </u>	<u> </u>

PLEASE answer items 73 through 89 by placing a ✓ or an X in the appropriate column next to the item. Choose the answer that best describes how YOU FEEL.

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR LEVEL OF SATISFACTION
OR DISSATISFACTION OF THE FOLLOWING ITEMS.

	a	b	c	d	e
	very satisfied	satisfied	dis- satisfied	very dis- satisfied	non-applic
(73) My career/occupational level at present...					
(74) Number of intimate friends in my life.....					
(75) Number of acquaintances in my life.....					
(76) The people with whom husband & I socialize					
(77) Amount of time I spend with my husband....					
(78) Number of children I now have.....					
(79) Community in which I now live.....					
(80) Frequency of sexual activity with husband.					
(81) Quality of sexual activity with husband...					
(82) Number of times my family has transferred/ relocated for my husband's company.					
(83) Number of times I entertain for husband's company/business.....					
(84) Number of times I socialize with my husband's colleagues/business associates...					
(85) Amount of time husband travels for his company.....					
(86) Number of hours husband is away from home for work or social demands.....					
(87) The home I live in.....					
(88) Amount of time I spend alone.....					
(89) My personal growth/personal identity.....					

APPENDIX B

OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

(Administered by Interview Only)

- (1) What are the sources of dissatisfaction in your life?
What makes you unhappy?
- (2) What issues or events cause problems or stress?
What are the obstacles to successfully working through problems?
- (3) In the last five years, what has been the most serious or problematic event or issue, or series of events or issues?
- (4) Do you ever experience depression? What issues or events make you feel depressed? How do/did you cope?
- (5) Have you ever felt suicidal? Have you ever made a suicide attempt? What are/were the circumstances surrounding suicidal feelings, or a suicidal attempt?
- (6) Have you ever considered separation or divorce (during this marriage)? Have you ever separated from your husband (during this marriage)? What are/were the circumstances surrounding the separation(s), or feelings of wanting to separate or divorce?
- (7) Is there any physical violence, in your marriage, between you and your husband? What circumstances provoke violence or feelings of violence?
- (8) Have you ever been sexually unfaithful to your husband? Have you ever considered it? What are/were the circumstances surrounding your sexual infidelity or thoughts of sexual infidelity?
- (9) Do you use alcohol or drugs? Are you concerned about your alcohol or drug use? Have other people expressed their concern over your use? Does your husband use alcohol or drugs? Are you concerned over his use? Have other people expressed their concern over his use?
- (10) When you experience problems, to whom do you turn for comfort or support?

OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

(continued)

- (11) If you could rearrange your life, or change your life to make it just the way you would like it, what would you change/include/exclude?
- (12) Have you ever been to a professional for counseling, psychological/psychiatric help, or emotional support? What issues/events led to seeking professional help? Was it helpful?

APPENDIX C

THERE ARE TWO PARTS TO THIS STUDY.

PART ONE IS A QUESTIONNAIRE. Please answer all items on the questionnaire. There are 89 items. It will take you about 45 minutes to one hour to complete part one. Select one answer per item (unless asked to select more than one). There are more instructions inside for each category of the questionnaire.

PART TWO IS A QUESTION AND ANSWER DISCUSSION between you and the interviewer. There are 12 questions. It will take about 1 to 1 1/2 hours to complete part two. The interviewer will tell you more about the question and answer discussion after part one is complete.

PLEASE READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY AND TAKE AS MUCH TIME AS YOU NEED.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All information collected in this study will be strictly confidential. It will be absolutely impossible for anyone who will see the results of this study to identify you or members of your family. This is an academic study and all information will become statistical data. If you allow the interviewer to quote you, or paraphrase anything you say, your permission will be obtained before the research manuscript is printed.

Thank you for your cooperation,

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VITA AUCTORIS

Maureen Ann Culleton-Felker was born on April 16, 1953, in Detroit, Michigan. She obtained her elementary school education at St. Suzanne parochial school, in Detroit. She attended Bishop Borgess High School in Redford, Michigan, and was graduated in June, 1971.

Following a year of employment, Ms. Felker attended Henry Ford Community College in Dearborn, Michigan for one year, and pursued liberal arts courses. She enrolled at the University of Windsor in September, 1973, following the 1972 death of her father, who was a veteran of the Royal Canadian Air Force. The Department of Veteran Affairs in London, Ontario, partially subsidized her education, and she completed her B.A. degree in Psychology in June, 1976. While completing her B.A., she was admitted into the B.S.W. program at the University of Windsor, and was graduated in June, 1977. Field experiences include placements at Roman Catholic Children's Aid Society of Essex County, Windsor-Western Hospital Centre, and Catholic Social Services of Wayne County in Detroit Michigan.

Ms. Felker became employed from August, 1977, to September, 1979, at Northeast Guidance Center, a comprehensive, community mental health center in Detroit, Michigan. She worked in out-patient child services.

She was admitted into the M.S.W. program at the University of Windsor, in September, 1979. She completed her course work in June, 1980. Her field placement was at Windsor-Western Hospital Centre, in the adult out-patient unit, where she first became interested in the marital dissatisfaction of corporate wives. Ms. Felker was a teaching assistant during the fourth year of her B.S.W. education, and again, during her M.S.W. year at the University of Windsor.

Ms. Felker was employed at the Community Commission on Drug Abuse, Livonia, Michigan, from August, 1980, to December, 1982. She interrupted her employment, and the work on her thesis, to attend to her child, born on December, 29, 1982. Ms. Felker, again, commenced work on her thesis in March, 1985. She expects to graduate in the fall convocation in October, 1986.